

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED IN CO-OPERATION WITH A

COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

ALBERT E. MCKINLEY, MANAGING EDITOR

Published with the Endorsement of the American Historical Association

Volume XVII.
Number 3.

PHILADELPHIA, MARCH, 1926

\$2.00 a year.
30 cents a copy.

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Volume XVII.
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PHILADELPHIA, MARCH, 1926

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The Court and The League

BY PROFESSOR F. H. HODDER, UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS

There has been so much misunderstanding and misrepresentation in regard to the relation between the World Court and the League of Nations that it is worth while to make a plain statement of the facts. This is, perhaps, the more necessary, now that the United States Senate has voted to adhere to the Court, in order that the public may not be misled by unfounded criticism.

The World Court is an American project and, as it happens, a Republican project, although there is no good reason why it should be regarded as a party question at all. The idea of the Court antedates the League of Nations. The United States has always led the movement for the settlement of international controversies by arbitration rather than by force. Before the first Hague Conference was called in 1899 we had settled fifty-seven controversies of our own in that peaceful way besides acting as arbitrator in a number of controversies between other nations.

When the first Hague Conference met during McKinley's administration Secretary Hay instructed our delegates to undertake to secure from the Conference the establishment of a World Court to which the nations of the earth could take such controversies as they saw fit for adjudication. The Conference created what was called the Permanent Court of Arbitration. It was not really a court, but a panel of about one hundred and thirty judges, consisting of four judges from each member state, from which a court could be chosen whenever a controversy arose. As these judges are scattered all over the world, living in their homes and pursuing their usual vocations, the arrangement was far from satisfactory. One can easily imagine how difficult it would be for our Supreme Court to function if it had to be organized from a panel of judges for every case that came before it. The task is less difficult in the international field only because the number of cases coming before an international court is far smaller than the number coming before the Supreme Court of the United States. For every case that arose a great deal of time was lost in organizing a court for its trial. Moreover, it was far more difficult to agree upon judges for the trial of a particular case than to choose them upon general principles. When the second Hague Conference was called during Roosevelt's administration in 1907, Secretary Root again instructed our delegates to undertake to secure the establishment of a real court, but they were unable to do so. The reason for their failure was that the powers were unable to agree upon the way in which the judges should be chosen.

Before a third Hague Conference was called the World War broke out and that was finally terminated in 1919 by the treaty of Versailles. In the treaty President Wilson embodied the Covenant of the League of Nations which was to be submitted to the nations of the world for ratification. The Covenant was ratified by fifty-five nations, to which Germany may be added, making fifty-six—practically all the nations of the world except four: Russia, Turkey, Mexico and the United States. The League thus established rests not upon the treaty of Versailles, but upon the ratification of the Covenant by the nations joining the League.

The Covenant established a deliberative body consisting of two branches, a Council, and an Assembly, that meet in Geneva, Switzerland. The Council consists of ten members; four permanent members representing the Great Powers, exclusive of the United States, and six members elected by the Assembly. The Council meets quarterly and subject to call at the place designated by the President. The Assembly consists of not more than three representatives from each of the member states and their self-governing colonies, but each of the member states and their colonies has but a single vote. The Assembly meets annually, in September, at Geneva, Switzerland, which was designated as the Seat of the League. The League has now been in operation for six years. The Council has held thirty-eight sessions and the Assembly six and, despite notable failures, the League has succeeded beyond all reasonable expectation. Whether we like it or not, all really international movements will henceforth be carried out under the auspices of the League. It is absurd to suppose that fifty-six nations of the world are going to scrap their organization because there are some things about it that some people in the United States do not like.

The fourteenth article of the Covenant provided that the Council of the League should formulate plans for a Permanent Court of International Justice. This Court was to hear and determine "any dispute of an international character *which the parties thereto agree to submit to it*," and to give advisory opinions upon any subject submitted to it by the League. To carry out this provision the Council appointed an Advisory Committee of Jurists of which Mr. Root was a member. This committee formulated a Statute creating the Permanent Court of International Justice. The League approved the Statute and then submitted it for ratification to all nations, to those who are not members of the League as well as to

those who are. The Statute was signed by the representatives of forty-eight states and so far has been ratified by thirty-six states.

The sources of the authority of the Court and of the League are entirely distinct. The authority of the Court is derived from the ratification of the Statute. The authority of the League is based upon the ratification of the Covenant. The membership of the Court and the membership of the League are distinct, since some states have ratified the Covenant that have not yet ratified the Statute, and a state may join the Court without joining the League.

The Court consists of eleven regular judges and four deputy judges chosen for a term of nine years. The deputy judges serve in the absence of the regular judges. The judges are nominated by the so-called Permanent Court of Arbitration, and are elected by a majority vote of the Council and Assembly of the League, but only one judge can be chosen from any one state. This mode of election was suggested by Mr. Root. Once chosen the judges are absolutely independent of the League. A judge can be expelled only by a unanimous vote of his colleagues. As a matter of convenience the expenses of the Court are apportioned among the member states, collected and paid by the League, but this work could be done by the Court itself if it saw fit. The Court meets annually in regular session at The Hague, and in special session subject to the call of its President. The jurisdiction of the Court is limited to the controversies that the parties involved agree to submit to it except that there is a provision that states, if they see fit, may accept compulsory jurisdiction upon a few designated points. Critics of the Court claim that the United States might be haled before the Court upon all sorts of counts, but anyone who has read the Statute knows that the Court will not assume jurisdiction over any question affecting the United States unless we see fit to submit the question to the Court for its decision. If we agree to submit a question to the Court then we are in honor bound to accept the decision just as every state that submits a controversy to a board of arbitration is bound to accept the result. The sanction of the Court rests almost wholly upon international public opinion. No state has ever yet refused to accept the result of an arbitration to which it has agreed to submit a controversy. To do so would put it in the class of outlaw states and no state can afford to eliminate itself from the family of nations. Reputation is as important to a nation as it is to an individual.

The Court was established by the election of fifteen of the outstanding jurists of the world as judges, including Mr. John Bassett Moore, the foremost American authority upon international law. The Court organized in January of 1922, and adopted its rules of procedure. Since then the Court has held eight sessions, four regular sessions and four extra sessions and has rendered six judgments in controversies submitted to it by the states involved and given twelve advisory opinions upon questions submitted to it by the League of Nations. This would seem to be a

pretty good showing when we remember that during the first three years of the existence of the Supreme Court of the United States no case whatever was submitted to it. Opponents of the Court are inclined to criticize the advisory opinions, but the giving of such opinions is a quasi-judicial function and is conferred upon their Supreme Courts by nine states of the United States. The World Court has already decided that it cannot give such opinions except with the consent of all the states interested.

The great advantage of the Permanent Court of International Justice is that it furnishes a tribunal to which nations can immediately refer legal controversies that arise between them. It thus removes the causes of international misunderstanding and diminishes the danger of war. It will not usher in the millennium, but any institution that diminishes, in any degree, the danger of war is a boon to mankind. The Court is superior to a board of arbitration, because the controversies submitted to it are decided by jurists of international reputation upon the principles of law instead of being compromised as is likely to be the case in a special board of arbitration. Another great service that the Court will render is that it will in course of time reorganize the body of international law that has been shot to pieces by the events of the last decade.

The objection to joining the World Court that weighs most heavily in the popular mind is that it violates the warning of Washington and Jefferson against entangling alliances. It should be borne in mind that this warning was not directed against all alliances, but only against such as entangle. It was directed against the old system of balance of power by which it was sought to keep peace by balancing groups of nations against each other. That system broke down in the World War and has been superseded by a world alliance, and a world alliance, as President Wilson pointed out in his peace address, is not entangling. Moreover, when the warning of Washington and Jefferson was given nations were comparatively isolated. Even the states and cities of the United States were isolated from each other. Communities were largely self-sustaining. All that has passed. Nations are so far inter-dependent that they cannot maintain their standard of life without the products of other nations and the prosperity of each depends upon the prosperity of all. Under these circumstances the degree of isolation contemplated by Washington and Jefferson is no longer possible.

The real reason for the opposition to joining the Court was that it is a step toward joining the League of Nations. Some who favor the Court want to go further and join the League, while others who favor the Court want to stop there. The Senate reservations provide specifically that joining the Court involves no relation to the League, that we shall participate in the election of judges upon an equal basis with members of the League, that we may withdraw from the Court at any time, that the Statute of the Court shall not be changed without our consent and, finally, that adherence to the Court shall not be

construed as a departure from our traditional policy of non-interference in the political matters of other nations or a relinquishment of our traditional attitude toward purely American questions. There is no denying the fact that joining the Court is a step in the direction of joining the League, but there can be no possible necessity of taking another step unless we desire to do so. It will make little difference to the

Court whether we join or not. The Court will go on without us. The question is, can we afford to repudiate an institution that makes for international peace and especially an institution that we ourselves first suggested? Can we afford to leave to other nations without our participation the remaking of international law? Can we afford to fall out of the line of international progress?

Developing the Social Studies at Syracuse University

BY PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON

In view of the increasing emphasis placed on the social studies throughout the whole of our educational system, together with the lack of agreement as to what is implied by the term, a preliminary round table conference was called on June 26 and 27, 1925, by the School of Citizenship and Public Affairs of Syracuse University, for the purpose of outlining plans for a summer session in 1926 which would be specially designed for those interested in a better understanding of the problem of citizenship training. A limited number of teachers and educators, largely from those engaged in work in the secondary schools, was invited to the conference. About 40 responded, including two representatives from the State Department of Education, one from the State League of Women Voters, and several members of the Social Science Departments of Syracuse University.

After a preliminary session, in which the purpose of the conference was outlined in some detail, three round tables were organized and requested to discuss: (1) the feasibility and desirability of preparing for the summer session a special curriculum for social science teachers; (2) the scope and character of the various courses to be included, and (3) the teaching staff to conduct these.

The recommendations of the round tables were unanimously adopted by the conference and have since been accepted as a sailing chart by the Syracuse authorities in charge of the summer session. As a consequence of the conference, the following curriculum is offered to teachers of social studies, and, it should be noted, *limited* to teachers or to graduate students anticipating teaching.

Provision is made for (1) introductory courses in economics, sociology, and social psychology for the purpose of filling up gaps in one's information, (2) for supplementary and advanced courses in history, sociology, and political science, (3) for methods courses, and (4) for showing in what manner the social sciences may be and should be integrated, (5) for guidance in research for those working toward an advanced degree.

The effort to develop the integration of the various elements which make up the social studies will be covered most definitely by two items in the program. The first is a course for teachers in which the relation

of the various social sciences, history, social psychology, etc., to each other and to teaching will be discussed. This will not be a course in abstractions, but will deal practically with the making of a course of study in the conditions that now confront us. It might be called a course in curriculum making, but for the fact that it will go nearer to the root of the matter than do most courses in curriculum making.

The second is an integration seminar. All of the members of the staff will take part in this seminar, which will be in the nature of a clinic for the discussion of selected social, political, and economic problems. As each such problem is taken up it will be examined from the point of view of the psychologist, economist, historian, political scientist, practical teacher, school administrator. Such discussion will tend to make clear the unity of scientific knowledge of social forces and processes and to break down the partitions which tend to separate our workers into air-tight compartments of specialization. The reaction from this specialization, which runs to emotional general discussion by immature pupils, will not be wisely resisted until a reasonable substitute be found for the present isolation of subjects of study.

Further orientation and stimulation will result from lectures by visiting specialists who will outline their methods, discuss exhibits of materials from their special fields, and submit bibliographies for additional research along the particular lines they suggest. Ten such visitors are to be provided.

In a word, the machinery of the enterprise has in mind a synthesis of the elements assembled and represented by specialists in social psychology, economics, political science, history, sociology, science of education who have analyzed society in the regular course of their researches and teaching. This synthesis is sadly needed. If it is not made by scientific leaders, efforts to make it will continue to appear among those who know little of the elements involved. Those who are interested in social studies, training for citizenship, education at large, or any other phase of social progress, will look to the Syracuse effort with sympathetic eyes, hoping that it will succeed in turning out a product which will appeal to three classes—the scientists, the educators, and the general public.

History and the Other Social Studies in Junior and Senior High Schools:

American History in Senior High Schools

BY FRANCES MOREHOUSE, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Tendencies in the Teaching of Senior High School American History, as Shown in a Study of Recent Syllabi

Of all possible means of finding the widest path in the field of high school teaching, that of examining syllabi, and especially state syllabi, has been chosen for two reasons: in the first place official syllabi carry with them a certain authority which means that the suggestions are actually in use in the territory covered by their jurisdiction, and in the second place the safeguards thrown around such official publications to prevent the entrance of illicit novelties is full and effective. The wild and irresponsible vagaries of reckless innovators have no more place in state syllabi than have Holy Rollers in a Presbyterian church. When, therefore, a recommendation or suggestion is found in a state syllabus, or even in that of a state university or a considerable city, it may be accepted as a more or less accepted thing, of respectable lineage and association. The present inquiry, undertaken with a view to ascertaining what is happening in the teaching of American history in the eleventh grade, where it is the typical unit of the social studies, is, therefore, presented with a fair degree of confidence. The straws in the wind are reputable straws, vouched for by educational authority and accepted by classroom teachers. And, although they blow in many ways, they do indicate on the whole, as may hereafter be shown, certain general tendencies which give promise that the whirlwind of advice, experiment and doubt lately prevailing may settle into a goodly breeze pointed toward progress.

THE AIMS OF AMERICAN HISTORY COURSES

Beginning in an orthodox way with aims, the inquirer finds a promising variety in the array of syllabi before him. Three stand out prominently because of manifold repetition: the mastery of facts, the development of good citizenship, and the appreciation of and devotion to high ideals. Whatever mind to desert the teaching of facts there may be among experimenters, none appears in the official guides given to teachers. Lansing and Trenton among the city syllabi mention fact-mastery particularly; Indiana, New Jersey, and Minnesota assert its importance.¹ In many cases specific facts are emphasized, especially where laws or public opinion demand certain topics of all schools. Thus the state syllabi of Utah, Connecticut, South Carolina, Minnesota, and Washington speak particularly of the laws and Constitution that are to be taught with the history;

while Utah adds also a knowledge of national politics.² Several syllabi go further than a fact-mastery requirement, and stipulate that the interpreting of facts is a prime object. New Jersey (p. 66) quotes Professor Johnson's statement that the aim of history is to make the social and political world intelligible. Utah, South Carolina, Kansas, New York, New Jersey, and Minnesota ask, with varying formulation, for an understanding and the ability to interpret our national institutions and present-day problems. Among the city syllabi Baltimore, Bayonne, and Trenton give the same emphasis to interpretation.³ Lansing puts especial emphasis upon current events, which involve, if well taught, a great deal of the interpretation of past events.

Good citizenship is probably well in mind in the planning of many courses and syllabi in which it is not specifically mentioned. The states of Utah and Indiana think it worth naming, as does the Alaska territorial syllabus, in which it has first place. It also appears prominently in the Bayonne and Trenton outlines and in the syllabus of Pierce and Sharpe from the University of Iowa.⁴ The latter syllabus mentions economic efficiency as a special aim, and with Utah puts emphasis upon the good use of leisure time. Utah thinks that the leisure time of our citizens may well be utilized in the study of national affairs, which is probably well worth emphasizing in other western states, where remoteness from the political center makes interest in the nation at large a matter for definite training. The conscientious use of the franchise and a willingness to deal with national problems are other aspects of citizenship that are named.

The appreciation of and devotion to American ideals appear in many forms and places, but are particularly mentioned by South Dakota, Alaska, South Carolina, and New York, and by the two New Jersey cities already cited.⁵ New York gives a "summary topic," American Ideals, which directs students to further work to be done toward "a perfect democracy." The same thought is repeated in many places in connection with the dynamic direction of activities, which is frequently emphasized. It is to be noted that in the Bayonne plan, local history is especially enlisted for the clarification and emphasis of ideals. In places where there is a strong consciousness of fine local traditions, and especially where there are historical remains of any kind that can be requisitioned, teachers will surely find this a useful idea.

Scattering aims, found mentioned once or twice, include the development of critical ability, and a critical attitude, urged as an aim by Lansing, and recommended by Maryland⁶ and Connecticut; the clarification of the terms "Liberty" and "Equality," by South Carolina; and the development of a technique of thought, study, and bibliography, by Baltimore and Kansas. Sympathetic understanding of other nations is urged by South Carolina and New York, and provided for definitely by Minnesota, which enumerates among its aims that of giving an insight "into the parallel development of neighboring American states whose future is so closely linked with our own." Kansas says a word for scholarship, New York for the "historic sense"; while Lansing, Baltimore, and Trenton all mention the object of creating an interest in historical literature. Fairmindedness is strongly urged by Utah and Alaska, and implied by New Jersey and other states. Patriotism, as such, is mentioned only by Connecticut, Maryland, South Carolina, and New Jersey, of the state syllabi examined; and Maryland, lest she be misunderstood, hastens to justify the misused word by explaining that true patriotism, not chauvinism, is meant. As early as the 1916 New Jersey syllabus, chauvinistic teaching was branded as a past aspect, an old-fashioned fallacy. Maryland precedes the formulation of specific aims for history by a repetition of the seven main objectives of the N. E. A. Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education; and these are clearly in the minds of several other syllabus-writers.

The motivation of history study with an idea of creating a bent toward changing things for the better is common, especially among the western syllabi; but is, perhaps, best illustrated by the Baltimore outline, which is especially dynamic and significant in this respect. "Reform" is no longer, it seems, a word to be avoided. The necessity of change is taken for granted in most of the syllabi.

There are other aims, specific and implied, in the list; but as many of them are germane to other phases of our discussion, and must be considered later, they may be omitted here.

METHODS OF TEACHING

In respect of method the syllabi contain surprisingly little. Some states give such general directions, as that notebooks shall be used, bulletin boards provided, or supplementary reading insisted upon. Connecticut treats the subject respectfully, while Minnesota gives suggestive paragraphs interspersed with the topics of the curriculum—by far the most concrete method help in any of the syllabi. Maryland gives good specific suggestions, pp. 158-161. The suggestions given on pages 29 and 30 of the Connecticut syllabus for the development of the critical attitude are interesting.

But much may be inferred from the general treatment, as to dominant tendencies in method. The treatment by topics is general, and the number of topics grows shorter on the whole, although the Utah course, with its long list of unorganized topics, is an

exception. Bayonne gives twenty topics and Minnesota nineteen, arranged in four groups. Iowa State arranges its material in thirty-five topics, each roughly for a week's work. The New York syllabus is the best example, perhaps, of the new long-unit tendency, for its topics number only seven. An extreme example of the unrestrained topical method is to be found in a commercial outline, which carries all topics through every period, finishing up one subject and laying it neatly on the shelf before attacking the next. Such a method is hardly, of course, practicable for high school use, and one does not find it in any official syllabus.

On the other hand, nowhere is there any sign of the old-fashioned history-by-administrations method. Chronology is observed with deference, but is never made arbiter of presentation. Connecticut recommends that the facts be presented in a generally chronological order, with later topical reviews, and this method seems fairly general. The New York syllabus recommends such a presentation as shall show national development and explain the present, bringing out both continuity and unity, and developing the historic sense. It emphasizes the "world point of view instead of periods or groups." In this outline also the authors have followed the excellent plan of printing required topics in italics, with supplementary and enriching ones in plain type. The seven main topics are well outlined, chronological order being neither transgressed nor defied, but sanely subordinated to the subjects of national evolution. The second topic, which is repeated from the report of the Committee of 1921, is so clearly chronological that it may be used, as is suggested, by those who feel the necessity of keeping closely to time sequences.

A third general characteristic on the method side is the prevalence of what is usually and loosely called a problem method, but which is more accurately a problematic statement of topics. South Carolina emphasizes this especially, Alaska follows suit, and the Iowa University outline gives an excellent example of the method worked out in clear, orderly, related units. There is nowhere any sign of a tendency to subordinate the orderly arrangement of historical facts to serve a consideration of present-day problems; but rather the problems are brought in where the subject-matter suggests them.

BALANCE AND EMPHASIS

Relative emphasis has changed much of late years in two respects, those of the kinds of history presented and of the periods given detailed study. The increased importance of social and economic history since the beginning of the present century finds its echo here, of course. New York notes the increase since 1910, the date of a previous syllabus. Kansas emphasizes industrial and agricultural phases, and calls attention to diplomatic history. Minnesota puts first in its aims the giving of a "balanced story of the development of the United States from political, social, economic and geographic or territorial points of view." The work, as developed at Iowa State and

reported in the University of Iowa Extension bulletin, shows a careful balance of elements including science, social custom and education; while in the South Dakota bulletin five lines of development are systematically followed. A number of syllabi mention the use of historical novels, useful in giving clear ideas of social history, and the Utah syllabus gives a list of such novels.

In the matter of time allotment there is little uniformity. Many syllabi make no attempt either to work out a definite time schedule, or to indicate by any other means the relative emphasis to be put on different periods. Extreme stress is not placed on very recent history, as was often the case during the World War, but there is much more time given to comparatively recent history than was the case ten years ago. The University of Iowa bulletin recognizes the perspective of events rather better than any other outline.

In an attempt to judge roughly of the practice in this respect, a comparison has been drawn up of the seven outlines which give at least an indication of the division of time that is considered advisable. Of the seven plans, that of the 1921 Joint Committee on History and Education for Citizenship Report⁷ finishes to the Civil War by the end of the first semester; Indiana to about 1860, Maryland to about 1800, Minnesota to 1815, Trenton to 1822, Bayonne to about 1840, and Lansing to about 1825. In the case of some states the time spent on the early period is lengthened by legal requirements for the teaching of the Constitution in American history classes. The following table shows more clearly the variety of time emphasis by a division of the whole course of American history into the pre-Constitutional, the Early National in which a distinctively American character was being built up, and an Expansion period in which isolation gradually gave way to world citizenship.

Syllabus	Weeks to 1789	Weeks to 1865	Weeks to date
1921 Report	6	15	15
Maryland	14	11	9
Indiana	7	11	13
Minnesota	14	11	9*
Iowa	6-8	15	11
Lansing	15	8	12

* Including time given to Canadian and Latin-American history.

Certainly nothing is to be deduced from this but the conclusion that a great deal of freedom of opinion and practice prevails, and that teachers in general may put in their time as suits best the particular objects which they have in mind. Is it fair also to add, since some of the states planning most liberally to emphasize modern applications in their work do not insist on any special emphasis upon recent history, that there is an implication that the history of all or of any periods is equally valuable for social purposes?

A variation of interest in the usual program is presented in the Kansas and Alaska plans, which do not cover the entire period usually presented. The Kansas outline, following a suggestion of J. R. Green, begins American history with the triumph of

Wolfe on the Heights of Abraham. Alaska begins with the national period. New Jersey omits the period before 1760 except as some topics demand the development previous to that date.

NATIONALISM

In reading through the various syllabi one is struck by the pervading consciousness of American nationalism. Whether this is the result of recent emphasis upon nationalism as a factor in world history or a direct outgrowth of a new national consciousness coming from participation in the World War and world affairs, is not clear; but that the makers of the syllabi have accepted the steps in the development of national life as a basis for periodic division, is very clear. Three large periods of American life seem to stand out in all of the syllabi in which an ordered arrangement upon some general principle has been attempted: that of European dependency, that of the acquiring of a distinct national life and character, and that of the entrance of the United States into the family of nations. In some cases a fourth is interposed between the second and the third: that of the testing of nationality and its triumphant emergence from that test. In every case the national idea appears. It is sometimes connected with that of westward expansion, a phase much more emphasized ten years ago than now, since in the meantime it has been accepted and assimilated into the general fabric of the national tradition. Often it is contrasted with sectionalism. Certainly no phrase of recent years has had more potent influence than that one of the Committee on Social Studies of the N. E. A. concerning "a vivid conception of American nationality."⁸ The phrase appears again and again in the syllabi. Particularly clear examples of its influence appear in the University of Iowa Extension bulletin and in Maryland's outline. It is also to be noted in those of Vermont, Iowa State, New Jersey, Utah, and South Dakota.⁹ Maryland makes the national point of view as opposed to the local or sectional one, the first of her aims, and supplements this with a very good discussion of nationalism and of the importance of teaching the truth about one's country.¹⁰ It is important to note that chauvinistic nationalism is invariably condemned; the tendency is not to magnify the nation unduly, but rather to call attention to national character and development.

A most interesting development of the national theme with the conjuring keyword of "Democracy" is to be found in the Vermont syllabus. Vermont devotes the ninth year to general social science of a simple character, takes up European history to 1700 in the tenth year and finishes it in the eleventh. The twelfth year is then given over to a combination of American history with social science. There are four parts: Pre-national American history, which centers about the planting of European stocks in the New World; a story of the development of democratic institutions, beginning with the Virginia Assembly of 1619 and continuing through the World War; a consideration of government as organized democracy; and fourth, a study of the Problems of Democracy,

for which a long list of problems is given and also the outline for combined history and problem study of the 1921 Committee on History and Education for Citizenship report.¹¹ The program is well integrated and motivated, and ought to serve its purpose well if the high school students of the state of Vermont are able to carry it out. But there are fully two years of good stiff high school work covered by the outline. In placing community civics in the ninth grade instead of the eighth, the Vermont authorities have encountered the same problem that confronts all school systems that have done this; and the overcrowded twelfth grade program is their attempt at a solution. If spread over two years, the course there outlined should prove invaluable in citizen-training.

The recurring theme of nationalism, as has been said, is well worked out in the Vermont outline. The first part of the study shows the roots of population, and the European conditions which made in the New World a laboratory of democracy. The second part traces the growth and change in democratic institutions. The third exhibits the machinery by which the people propose to carry out their will. The fourth shows the obstacles, enemies, shortcomings, and puzzlements of a working democracy which has become a national habit of action.

THE EXTENSION OF AMERICAN HISTORY

Perhaps the most marked change observable in the recommendations of these syllabi is the abandoning of that water-tight exclusiveness that was once the traditional American attitude. There was a time when American history textbooks contained scarcely a mention of any other countries, save such as we had whipped in wars of their nefarious concocting. Today both textbooks and syllabi show a thawing out toward Hyperborean regions not under our own flag, and a tendency to recognize both neighboring lands and the place of the United States in the family of nations.

Most of the outlines do this through additional emphasis on the foreign relationships of the United States, a tendency noticeable in the outlines of the University of Iowa, Kansas, New Jersey, and New York, and to some extent in Utah. The inclusion of the World War, with its causes, and our national history since 1898 naturally forces more attention toward foreign affairs than was once necessary.

Maryland goes farther still in suggesting some Latin-American history as an elective, for which a good outline is given, pp. 182-184; while Minnesota boldly includes two weeks of Latin-American history and one of Canadian history, outlined with references, in its year's work. New York includes a little Canadian history in its world history, while New Jersey gives an outline (pages 182ff) for elective work in Latin-American history that teachers will find useful.

Another phase of the tendency to enlarge the scope and view of American history is found in those courses in which the history of the United States is taught as a part of world history. The school at Mooseheart includes American history in a two-year course

vouched for by A. B. Hart and W. C. Spencer,¹² the topics in American history being correlated with those of world history from about 1515 on. The result is to show the place of this nation in the world rather effectively. The Bayonne course announces the aim of developing a sympathetic understanding of world relations through "our own ideals, customs, and traditions," but does not say how this is to be done. The influence of some hypothesis of unity is apparent in the Vermont plan, and also in that of New Jersey, which recommends the teaching of European and American history together until 1700, after which separate courses are given, and this is done with the stated object of showing the continuity of Old and New World history.

The combination of European and American history in a single Modern History Course, as taught at the University High School in Chicago, is described by Professor Hill in Supplementary Educational Monograph No. 24,¹³ with an outline of the eight topics about which the study is organized. Of these, two are chosen from the field of distinctively American history, the story of the slavery struggle and the story of the westward movement in the United States; but all the topics are such that the American aspects may readily be brought out. It is very possible that the time has come when, if three years cannot be spared in the high school course for a survey of European and American history, a two-year combination course giving a survey of world history including the most significant movements and accomplishments in the United States, will give to young Americans the most practical preparation for living. The fact that such a course has been planned and presented and found fairly satisfactory in the University of Chicago High School is in itself significant of the growing recognition of the United States in the family of nations.

The kinds and degrees of extension noted above show how variously this spirit of broadening-out is manifested. From the added emphasis on foreign affairs, with the explanation of world-history which makes our diplomatic history intelligible, the tendency moves to a real integration of American with world history, or to a frank inclusion of a brief survey of portions of Pan-American history. And with this broadening comes inevitably the omission of traditional elements once sacredly guarded and repeated as necessary parts of national history. Professor Hill tells in his account of the work at the University High School at Chicago, of the girl who had never heard of Pocahontas. Doubtless the new developments will in a few years give us a set of high school students to whom the Boston Tea Party, Perry's slogan on Lake Erie, Washington's hatchet, and Grant's brand of whiskey will be equally unknown. But they will have an understanding of the development of the human race in its world, and of the part in this development which our own country has played, for the want of which the present generation of Americans have made some egregious blunders.

There is another type of extension which is re-

peatedly manifest in the syllabi: the extension of application. History for history's sake is nowhere evident, despite the steady respect for fact which is shown in all of them. The increased space given to problems, the distinctly ethical twist in the recommendations, the pre-eminent place of the truth in the minds of the syllabus writers, all indicate that back of the courses is the earnest hope of the history teacher so to show forth the subject as to make it contribute to sane, incorruptible and idealistic citizenship. Writers are always somewhat shy of open espousal of ethical ends, lest the self-conscious rationalists accuse them of sentimentality; therefore, the straws in the wind here are doubly significant.

A recapitulation of apparent tendencies in the recent syllabi shows, then, a frank motivation of curriculum and methods in the interests of sane patriotism and good citizenship; an emphasis upon scholarliness in selection, presentation and emphasis; a broadly topical method with a strong bent toward concrete application to present-day national and international problems; great variety in the allotment of time and emphasis so far as periods are concerned, and a steadily increasing amount of social and economic history; a pervading consciousness of nationalism, but a conscious repudiation of chauvinism; and a tendency to enlarge the field and scope of the history taught, at the cost of many details of doubtful social value formerly included, to cover the main movements in the Western Hemisphere with which our own country is concerned.

¹ Course of Study in History, Civics, and Economics for the Lansing Public Schools, Board of Education, Lansing, Michigan, 1922. Secondary Course of Study, American History, Public Schools, Trenton, N. J., 1923. Bulletin No. 65D, History and Social Sciences, Indiana Department of Public Instruction, 1923. Bulletin No. 3-B, Social Studies, American History, Minnesota Department of Education, August, 1924.

² Utah Course of Study for the Secondary Schools, State Department of Public Instruction, July, 1923. A Manual of the Social Studies for Secondary Schools, Connecticut State Board of Education, 1924 or 1925. Parkinson, B. L., High School Manual, South Carolina Department of Education, 1923. Bulletin No. 22, High School Manual, Washington Department of Education, 1923 or 1924. Syllabus of Social Studies for Secondary Schools, Part One, New Jersey Department of Public Instruction, 1925.

³ Price, R. R., A Notebook in American History for Kansas Schools, Topeka, 1921. University of the State of New York, Albany, 1922. Course of Study in Social Science, Junior and Senior High Schools, Bayonne, N. J., Board of Education, 1924. The Social Studies, Baltimore Department of Education, 1925, pp. 383ff.

⁴ Manual and Course of Study for the High Schools of Alaska, Alaska Department of Education, Juneau, 1922. Pierce, B. L., and Sharpe, E. E., Courses in the Social Studies for Senior High Schools; Eleventh Grade United States History, University of Iowa Extension Bulletin, No. 119, Iowa City, 1925.

⁵ High School Manual for South Dakota. Pierre, 1922.

⁶ The Teaching of the Social Studies, a Manual for High School Teachers, State Department of Education, Maryland (Maryland School Bulletin, v. VI, No. 4. December, 1924. Pp. 149ff). This syllabus, with that of Minnesota, is perhaps the most helpful and suggestive of the group, since the course and the objectives are most clearly and fully outlined. The Minnesota syllabus carries many of the same ideas rather further.

⁷ THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, XII:208-218 (June, 1921).

⁸ Report, p. 150.

⁹ High Schools of Vermont Manual and Courses of Study, State Board of Education. Whole Bulletin, No. 1, Part III, 1923.

¹⁰ The peculiar sub-title on p. 150 is perhaps a misprint for "National Interests Paramount Over Local Interests." Certainly the context indicates no anti-social tendencies on the part of the authors. State syllabi seem particularly to suffer from bad proofreading, perhaps because they are rarely sent back to the real authors for this rite.

¹¹ THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, XII:216-218.

¹² Hart, A. B., and Spencer, W. C., Mooseheart Course of Academic Study. Mooseheart Press, 1920.

¹³ Studies in Secondary Education, I. University High School, University of Chicago, January, 1923, pp. 103ff.

Recent Tendencies in Method in Eleventh Grade American History

In the methods used for high school history the last five years have seen what promises to be an almost epochal development, the changes centering about three principles which seem now to be pretty well defined. They are the long unit, the higher standard of student performance, and the separation of the learning processes. The first two are generally recognized and fairly standardized; the third involves much diversity of practice and is not generally so well understood or so widely used. Its inclusion here seems to be justified by the fact that in some form or other it appears repeatedly in the newer methodology, and must find formulation if the remarkable results sometimes attained are adequately to be explained.

The long unit seems to some teachers who have used it, the great discovery of the age. It is the result of a perfectly natural evolution in methods, beginning with the day-to-day assignment of single lessons, progressing through topical units extending over several days, passing through the week-unit for which many texts are conveniently arranged, and then extending triumphantly into its present comprehensive scope. Behind this sequence is that great nation-wide movement which is making high school work what college work was a few years ago, which is stiffening requirements all along the line to bring school accomplishment up to the demands of modern life. Behind it also is a new respect for the mind of adolescent youth; too long limited by old tradition and the faulty leadership of ill-trained teachers.

The teacher who wishes to organize his course in long units divides the year's work into from five to ten topics. The treatment of these topics depends upon the methods used by the teacher in question; some hints will be found in the paragraphs below and in the two illustrations which follow. The essential thing is that in his view of the subject the student sees clearly from the beginning that events may be grouped about a unifying social aim, movement, characteristic or set of events, for perhaps a long period of time. There is, of course, danger here of giving too distinct a color to history, of making one interpretation too all-inclusive. The danger is to be recognized and guarded against, but not exaggerated; even a one-sided view of history that is clear and re-

memorable is probably better than the net result of a few blurred impressions that was too often the final residuum of short-unit work.

In the higher standard of student performance are to be found the more spectacular aspects of the new methods. Those who have seen students write a good examination for which no questions were given, or deliver an interesting lecture on a social movement without the stimulation of question or comment from either teacher or fellow-students, realize how much the new methods are doing in developing hitherto undreamed-of possibilities in learning and enjoyment. The raised standard justifies itself first of all in the keen pleasure which it brings to good students, in the zestful experiment of finding out how far one may go and how much one may accomplish.

This pleasure springs from the fact that teachers who expect more of their students must perforce depend upon the students to do it. Students are forced to work more by themselves, to depend upon their own powers and judgment, to organize and dig and reconstruct on their own. The pedagogical reasons for this have been repeatedly set forth by able psychologists and educators, and are generally accepted; it is the technique of independence which is still in the realm of experiment and formulation.

The process of student performance begins with the mastery of fact, where learning always begins. The field to be surveyed is wider and the mastery must be surer and more permanent than was necessary under a daily detailed test method, with merely responsive attitudes on the part of the learners. Teachers who use the long unit find they must revert to very old-fashioned fact-learning, such as our grandfathers faced if they attended good schools a long time ago; but unlike our grandfathers the modern student is only beginning when he learns his facts. By a paradox of education, the infinitely harder task of the modern student is far easier of accomplishment, because the incentive has increased in greater ratio than the task.

The necessity of thoroughly mastering facts has brought back as part of the new method, what used to be the mainstay and chief activity of the old, effective drill. If facts are the basis of learning, they must not only be well and permanently mastered, but they must be learned early in the process and used, not as the sole end, but rather as a means to a more worth-while end. Good drill is now more important than ever. The correct association of related facts is the very groundwork and frame of good history learning. Some students of mediocre or low ability never go beyond this stage of the history-learning process, and this fact should be fully and frankly recognized by teachers, parents, and superintendents. No method can manufacture inherent ability. No art of teaching can make thinkers out of students of low I. Q.'s, or interpreters of historic movements out of boys and girls incapable of conceiving abstract ideas and immaterial processes. But the students of low ability will find themselves interested in the earlier

stages of the process along with their more gifted fellows, and as their rate of progress is slower will find themselves well engaged for the entire time given to the unit. A wise teacher knows the abilities of his students and does not expect impossibilities. He does expect maximum performance according to ability from all. Some modification of the Dalton plan is useful for securing these varied and adapted results, although in a socialized recitation it is not impossible.

In the second place all students who are capable are expected to find approximate historic parallels, to see the principles involved and the aims of social movements, and to apply those principles and aims to some extent to modern problems. The mastery of facts and their interpretation involves understanding what has happened on three levels—the actual mind-picture of the occurrence, the meaning of the occurrence in the progress of the race, and the possible meaning of the occurrence in the future of the race. Only the best students will do all of this adequately, but all should be exposed to the opportunity to do it.

The third phase of the raised standard has to do with the expression of this understanding; it gives the index to the intrinsic performance. The pith of the higher requirement is that the student is changed from a responsive creature answering to the best of his ability what the teacher asks of him, to a constructive creature who, from the materials placed at his disposal, under the general direction of the educational engineer who oversees the work, makes for himself the very best mental reconstruction of certain segments of race history under consideration that he can; and then presents this reconstruction for his own testing and for the pleasure and profit of his fellows. He must master the vocabulary of the study, he must fill in the given outlines with his own choice of detail, having first satisfied the minimum requirements for social needs. This consciousness of constructive activity is the stimulating essence of the method for the student. It adds joy to expression and subtracts drudgery from the hard work, which is an essential part of the method. Students must work far harder under a long-unit, individual-test method than under any conventional daily-recitation one. But the possible variety of expression is greater, and the sense of personal accomplishment more vivid.

The third characteristic of the newer methods is the separation and clarification of the learning processes. This was done in the first instance for the students, who, when working independently, needed to know how to go about the business of learning. Teachers found it impossible to show each one separately, not being omnipresent and omniscient; they must work out the technique of learning and make it conscious to their charges. But teachers found that they themselves often did not know just what the learning processes are, for method in the past has largely concerned itself (with the exception of such work as Professor Henry Johnson's) with teaching and not with learning. Out of the necessity for clarifying and formulating the steps of learning for

the students have grown the several sets of steps in history learning in use today among the teachers who practice the newer methods.

The best known of these is probably that in use at the University of Chicago High School, with which really wonderful results have been attained. Another set of steps, adapted to the socialized methods which must be used by very busy teachers in crowded schools, was developed in some method experiments carried on at the University of Minnesota High School in 1923-24. In these experiments the initial step, usually called exploration, was abandoned early, because the exploration usually revealed an expanse of aridity in the student mind scarcely worth the charting. The students themselves were the first to request that "we get down to business." Neither students nor teachers seemed to find interest or profit from the largely negative results of measuring the approximate vacuum; of course, had it been other than an approximate vacuum there would be small point in making it a subject of study. The six steps finally agreed upon as necessary to a functioning mastery of the subject matter were:

1. A presurvey of the unit by the teacher, in which its main features were presented as clearly as possible in a bird's-eye view. The big facts and the big queries both appeared in this lecture, which was often supplemented by maps and diagrams, and sometimes lasted two or three days. The students usually took careful notes on the lecture, although a few of the more brilliant preferred not to do so.

2. A season of enrichment of this first outline acquaintance, through much reading, both of texts and of all sorts of supplementary material, graded according to the ability of the students. The reading was done outside the class periods, while the third and fourth steps were being carried on in the recitation hours. Note that in the first two steps the student is receptive. His first business is to acquire some idea of the facts in the case, before he can aspire to handling them in problem-study or generalization.

3. Drill. This drill at the beginning of the year is carried on in class with directions for home supplementary drill. Gradually as the students learn the art of self-drill, the amount of class-drill is reduced; but it can never be left entirely to the students except in sections of unusual ability. The elements included in the drill are lists, basic facts in geography, biography, and chronology, sequences, and outlines, and all material which can be most economically mastered in game-like class-drill. The social factor is of immense help here. Some facts, such as dates, are not significant in themselves, and so have little direct appeal, give little incentive for individual work; but they lead to significant facts of intrinsic interest, and so must be learned. Such facts are learned most quickly and pleasantly and surely by means of social drill, managed by a lively and efficient teacher. Students who have special difficulty with this mechanized basis for further work should be shown how to repeat at home the given associations until they are mastered. Toward the end of the year the drill work almost disappears from the class

period, but it is never absent from the students' processes of history-learning.

4. The socialized recitation, used to test the clarity and range of the students' understanding of the unit. This functions as a kind of secondary drill to many of the students, as it secures that repetition in a variety of aspects which gives clearer understanding. It also reveals lacunae in the mastery of the fundamentals, to be corrected at once by more drill or more reading.

5. The students have now a sufficient mastery of the story to use their facts in thinking. The teacher, therefore, stimulates application by posing one or several problems which are relevant, and which force the students to use their material constructively. In American history there is a wealth of current application, for which the history of any period in our national past gives ample raw materials. Whatever the type of problem used, it should constantly test anew the generalizations which have been made, and it should arouse and develop the ethical sense as applied to public affairs.

6. The last part of the process is the test toward which teacher and students have all been looking from the beginning, with justifiable interest; for this test is to be a measure of the real mastery of the unit, and of the ability of each individual student to extract from a given experience his possible quota of good and of growth. The test may be written or oral, its form depending upon circumstances. But it must be a test of the power of the students to reconstruct the whole unit in all the aspects within the range of his ability, without help. He is given no outline, no true-false suggestions, no questions, no incomplete sentences. Such examinations are easy to correct and evaluate, and have their place in the scheme of education; but they are no test of real ability in students, because, for one thing, they fail to stimulate prospectively, or encourage students to work to the limit of their ability to meet them.

It is hard to find time for constructive tests in an ordinary public school, because the time allowed for testing is too short and the staff of teachers too small. Unless the sections are small, several days must be allowed for testing, and it is usually needful to allow some students to write while others talk. If possible, each student should be allowed first to outline the whole unit, and then to develop as much of it as he can in detailed description and discussion, choosing some aspect not before recited in his presence, or some aspect in which he has specialized. There are many ways in which the test can be made, and students will often make suggestions of worth in their effort to solve the common problem of limited time. The form may vary widely, but the essential quality of an independent performance, an entirely constructive reproduction of a mental picture of an historical movement, an expression of intrinsic mastery, remains. It is helpful to ask the listening students to evaluate the performance, handing in their gradings on slips of paper which, of course, are never shown to other students unless they can be used as effective spurs or rewards.

In the foregoing paragraphs the steps appear more distinctly separated than they are liable to be in fact. The more or less individualized ways of working will, of course, bring it about that the class is not kept very closely together, for one thing; and then opportunity sometimes dictates an inversion of the usual order, interruptions, skipings. No good teacher is the slave of his methods. But to have a clear idea of what one is about and why, is the beginning of good teaching.

This outline of the three principles which appear in one form or another in much of the newer work, will serve to introduce the illustration which follows. It shows how the Dalton plan is modified for work in American history in the South Philadelphia High School for Girls.

A Classroom Procedure in American History Under the Dalton Plan

BY ALMA GRACE HAMILTON, SOUTH PHILADELPHIA HIGH SCHOOL FOR GIRLS

There is no attempt in this brief explanation to present a new teaching method for history, but merely an attempt to give a classroom procedure for a history class in a school organized on the Dalton plan. We make no extravagant claims to have discovered new teaching devices for history, but our wits have been sharpened to discover old ones that may be effectively used under our Dalton organization.

One secret of successful teaching under the Dalton plan is the well-planned assignment sheet. Assignment sheets that cover a month's work are given to each child. The general plan used for each unit of work on the sheet has been to present the required text work and then the electives. Children who expect to secure more than the minimum mark are expected to do electives.

In these particular American history classes the children are divided into two groups. It has been found necessary to limit the conferences groups to two in order to cover the history content in the allotted year's time and also to allow sufficient time for discussion that may be worthwhile. The two groups still allow for individual speeds of work. They are not rigid, for a child may shift from one to the other.

Conference on a unit proceeds as soon as a group is prepared. The basis for this is the fact questions from the text given on the assignment sheet. A child *must* do these in order to be admitted to a conference. From these questions proceed a testing for fact, the necessary explanation, and a free expression of opinion by the pupils.

Since a part of the class is freed from recitation, the demand for reference books is somewhat relieved. The pupils are also given free time in other subjects if there is not a conference which means that the demand for books can be spread out during the day and need not be, as formerly, one period in the day when all the pupils of a particular grade had a study period.

After a unit's work is done, check-up questions may be given out. The new type of examination question on mimeographed sheets is most frequently used. The major examination covering several units of work is generally a combination of the new type of examination question and the old essay type.

The electives, as was previously said, are done by girls who desire more than a merely satisfactory mark on their monthly graph cards. Some scheme had to be devised to check the reading. In some classes special conferences are held, but in the American history groups mimeographed tests are given. The aim has not necessarily been to make the tests difficult, but to secure an easily administered measure of achievement for their reading and to encourage a free expression of opinion on the selections read. We desire rather to encourage than discourage the reading of historical literature. In the appended assignment sheet three selections out of the six electives were required to be able to take the elective test. When the new sheet was given out an explanation of the type of material in each elective was given. No other attempt was made to guide the reading, as it was felt that this would defeat the purpose of an elective system.

The elective system which has encouraged wider and more intelligent reading, the printed assignment sheet which has saved time formerly used in giving oral assignments, and the free time, an essential of any real Dalton work, have made, it is felt, for real improvement in the history work.

ASSIGNMENT SHEET

South Philadelphia High School December, 1925
No. 35 11B AMERICAN HISTORY 190 copies

Bibliography: Text; *Encyclopedia Britannica*, *Life and Letters of Walter H. Page*, 1; Paxson, *The New Nation*; Sinclair, *The Jungle*; Steffens, *The Shame of the Cities*; Tarbell, *The History of the Standard Oil*; Thayer, *Theodore Roosevelt*; Wilson, *The New Freedom*.

Unit I. Republican Policies, 1900-1912. 8 days
A. Beard, Ch. XXI, pp. 507-534.

1. Describe the personality and early career of Roosevelt.
2. Foreign affairs.
 - a) What stimulated interest in the construction of the Panama Canal? Note the provisions of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty. How did the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty alter it? What were the two possible canal routes? What was the fate of the Columbian Treaty? Tell how Roosevelt secured a cession through Panama.
 - b) What part did Roosevelt play in international affairs in 1906?
 - c) Explain Venezuela's trouble with England and Germany, and their attempt to collect. What was their attitude towards arbitration? What was Roosevelt's threat? What is the importance of the affair?
 - d) What rights did Santo Domingo give up to the United States? What questions arose out of the second Santo Domingo treaty?
 - e) Give Roosevelt's part in the second Hague Conference.

- f) What was the purpose of the tour of the fleet?
 - g) What decision was handed down by the Supreme Court in the Insular cases? How were Porto Rico and the Philippines governed until 1916?
 - h) Why was United States morally bound to give Cuba her independence? pp. 491-2. List provisions of Platt Amendment. Why were troops landed in '06?
3. Domestic policies.
- a) What was Roosevelt's view of the Constitution?
 - b) Pp. 519-523, 536-8. List problems to be faced (reference on muckracking in elective, No. 4).
 - c) Give provisions of the Hepburn Bill, also the Newlands Act.
 - d) What prosecutions did Roosevelt make under Sherman Anti-Trust Law?
 - e) How was Roosevelt's view of the Constitution shown in the coal strike of 1902?
 - f) What parts did Roosevelt and Bryan play in the election of 1908? What effect did the Payne-Aldrich bill have on the Republican party? What amendment was passed? Explain the rise of the progressive party, its organization, and Roosevelt's supplanting LaFollette as leader. What dispute arose in the Republican convention? On what things did Mr. Wilson make his campaign in 1912?
- B. Electives.
1. *Theodore Roosevelt*, Ch. I and Ch. VI are especially fine on his life before he became President, which is complete in Thayer, Ch. I-X.
 2. Read account of the building of the Panama Canal in *Britannica*.
 3. Big business. What is a monopoly? What is a holding company? What was the Interstate Commerce Law on combination? What was

the accusation in the Northern Securities Case? What was the Elkins Law? Paxson, 295-8.

4. *The Shame of the Cities*, Philadelphia, Corrupt and Contended, pp. 193-229. What was the nature of the population in 1903? What was the Bullitt Law? What fraud was there in voting? Who controlled the Republican machine? What corruption existed in the public school system and the leasing of city property? What is meant by the "apathy of the people"? (Other references on muckracking: *The Jungle* and *The History of the Standard Oil Company*.)

Unit II. President Wilson, 1913-1917.

A. Beard, Ch. XXV, pp. 588-596.

1. Domestic policies. What was the nature of the tariff and tax bills of Wilson's first administration? By a diagram show the organization of the Federal Reserve system. What was the provision of the Farm Loan Act? The purpose of the Clayton Anti-Trust Law? What provisions favorable to labor were in it? What was the Seaman's Act? The Adamson Act? The other three welfare laws? Give the fate of the Child Labor Law in a test case. What change in governmental policy appeared at the beginning of the twentieth century? What is the Eighteenth Amendment to the Constitution?
2. Foreign affairs. Give provisions of the Jones Organic Act. What steps did the United States take in Santo Domingo, Haiti, Nicaragua? Tell the Mexican situation, 1911-17. What was the policy of "watchful waiting"?

B. Electives.

1. *The New Freedom*. Read one of these campaign speeches. Is Wilson's "New Freedom" the same that Jefferson speaks of in his first inaugural? What objectives would you apply to the man, Wilson, after reading the speech?
2. "Policy" and "Principle." Page, pp. 182, 205. What principle did Wilson advance in dealing with the Mexican situation? What did he propose to teach the Mexicans?

South Philadelphia High School

No. 18

11B. AMERICAN HISTORY TEST

I. Directions: Place same number before fact in right-hand column that corresponds with fact of given number in left-hand column:

- | | | |
|---------------------------------|-----|---|
| 1. Alaska | () | Seized by Hearst |
| 2. Alabama claims | () | Defeated by Senate |
| 3. Samoan Islands | () | Revolt led by Aguinaldo |
| 4. Venezuela | () | Secured by Spanish Treaty |
| 5. Hawaia | () | Secured after revolution against Columbia |
| 6. Ostend Manifesto | () | Ceded treaty rights to United States |
| 7. De Lome letter | () | On insular cases |
| 8. Philippines | () | Napoleon III attempts to seize it |
| 9. Porto Rico | () | Issued by three American ministers |
| 10. Panama Canal | () | Divided between Germany and U. S. |
| 11. Cession through Panama | () | Purchased 1867 |
| 12. Treaty of Portsmouth | () | Germany attempts to collect by force |
| 13. Venezuela debt | () | Attack on foreign embassies |
| 14. Santo Domingo | () | Gave Cuban independence with reservations |
| 15. Second Hague conference | () | Completed during Roosevelt's administration |
| 16. Tour of the Fleet | () | Boundary dispute |
| 17. Supreme Court decision | () | Sent by Roosevelt around world |
| 18. Platt amendment | () | Settled at Geneva |
| 19. Mexico | () | Annexation treaty withdrawn by Cleveland |
| 20. Monroe Doctrine | () | Asserted by Cleveland and Roosevelt |
| 21. Purchase Treaty of St. John | () | Held at suggestion of Roosevelt |
| 22. Boxer Rebellion | () | Ended Russo-Japanese war |
- II. Answer 1 and one other.

1. State the principles of the Monroe Doctrine. Give the details of the Mexican situation. Which principle or principles applied to this case?
2. Give the details of the acquisition of Hawaia. Give your opinion of the method of acquisition.
3. What was the Boxer rebellion? What is meant by the "OPEN DOOR" Policy?

N. B.—The above test covers unit II on the November assignment sheet on the topic, Foreign Affairs from 1865-1900, and Unit I of the December assignment, Foreign Affairs from 1900-1906.

11B. AMERICAN HISTORY TEST IN ELECTIVES

- I. Give author and title of the three references you chose:
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.
- II. Indicate in order given above the nature of subject content of each book:
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.
- III. Which book do you recommend for:
 1. Informational material?
 2. Explanatory material?
 3. Historical atmosphere?
 4. Contemporary opinion?
- IV. In what way, if at all, has any one of these three books helped you?

Why Americans and Canadians Should Each Study the History of the Other Country

BY WILLIAM SMITH, DEPUTY NATIONAL ARCHIVIST OF CANADA

My first thought when I was requested to give an answer to the question at the head of this article was of the American students, who come every summer in increasing numbers to Ottawa to work in the Public Archives and the Parliamentary Library. I asked what series of events in Canadian history most interested them. Some are working on one or other of the aspects of the development of Responsible Government, others on the movements which led to the confederation of the Provinces, and one on immigration and the distribution of the in-comers.

Canadian students who attend classes in American universities have told me that what interested them most was the American constitution and its outworkings under judicial interpretation, and the formation and character of the Western States. I conclude that students in both countries are mainly concerned with sociological and political questions, and that sociology is studied as a key to politics.

The wide vogue which the frontier theory has received as an explanation of certain American characteristics has its counterpart in Canada. Canada quite as much as the United States has witnessed the steady recession of the frontier before the advances of conventional civilization. The question arises, why are the traits which are said to mark the frontiersman in the United States only imperfectly recognized in the Canadian frontiersman? The comparison between the two types is fascinating, as the student leaves generalities and passes into details.

American historians seem agreed that the influence of the vigorous transmontane communities on the politics and even of the social life of the whole country has been very great. The same extent of influence by this class is not clearly discernable in Canada. For one reason, the frontiersmen in this country have never been left in the same degree of isolation. The backwoods settlements in older Canada have nearly all been along the shores of rivers and lakes and they did not lose touch with the older districts. The Northwest provinces have been sufficiently separated from those in the East to have

developed a distinct set of interests, and what are regarded in the East as heretical intrusions are causing some embarrassment to the older political parties.

The steps leading up to the decision of Canadians to remain part of the British Empire, in spite of causes for discontent quite as serious as those which alienated the older colonies, and the adoption in Canada and other parts of the Empire, of all the essential principles and practice of the British constitution are probably the features of Canadian history which most engage American students.

Among Canadian students, the United States constitution is perpetually raising questions. It is needless to say that these students are behind none in their veneration for that greatest of constitutional documents. But the idea of an unchanging law in a changing world puzzles them. A friend of mine, a scholarly and experienced journalist who lived for several years in the United States, chiefly in Boston, and who had a great admiration for the country and its people, used to maintain that the most convincing proof that existed of the capacity of Americans for self-government was that they managed to get along with their constitution. He was familiar with the measure of elasticity given to the constitution by the interpretations of Marshall and other jurists, but he was sceptical as to the adaptability of any constitution, however liberally interpreted, to a society which had undergone such profound changes in condition as the United States has done.

A recent American writer on the constitution declares that the underlying purpose of the Convention which framed the Constitution was (to adopt a popular phrase) to make the United States safe against democracy.

It should be a matter of deep interest with students in both countries to observe two democracies, practically identical in political tradition and outlook working out their destinies under two systems so different in their operation. The freedom from restraint which Canadians possess in their legislation tends to produce a cautious conservatism in dealing with the demands of minority *blocs*, which is, perhaps, not so necessary in a legislature, which can depend on the Supreme Court to keep the laws they may make within conservative lines. The two systems are still on trial. Eminent English publicists, having the fear of extremists before their eyes, have deplored the lack in England of a constitution such as that of the United States.

The countries composing the British Commonwealth have nothing to oppose to the excesses of political and economic theorists but the educated good sense and natural conservatism of the masses of the people.

How far these have in the past proved a sufficient safeguard against the consequences of the folly, inevitably mingled in the ideas which promote progress, and how far they may tend to succumb to the demagogic forces which continue to assail them are questions which may engage the earnest attention of all students on this side of the Atlantic.

Not less important to students of the two systems is the question how long the Constitution and its interpreter, the Supreme Court, has been or will be found adequate to deal with the new problems constantly arising from the changing conditions of society.

With students of economics, there is no choice. American students of the various problems of the Northern and Northwestern States must consult Canadian material in order to get a complete view of their subjects. A similar necessity lies upon Canadian students with respect to material in the United States. As an illustration, the St. Lawrence waterway scheme is occupying much attention in both countries. Few, perhaps, are aware of the long history of the relations between Canada and the Northwestern States in the matter of transportation. As these states began to be settled it was to the St. Lawrence, more than to New York, that they looked for their overseas communication. Canada responded by constructing a series of canals, and building a line of railways, mainly in the hope of attracting the trade of these states. How well they succeeded may be judged from the fact that in the early sixties (80 years ago) mails from Chicago were carried over the Grand Trunk Railway and the Canadian line of steamships and reached London in 12 days. We do not do much better today. The interlocking of interests between the United States and Canada indicated by this fact shows that, for an adequate presentation of the economic history of either country, a study of the records of both countries is indispensable.

Why Study Latin-American History?

BY HELOISE BRAINERD, CHIEF, DIVISION OF
EDUCATION, PAN-AMERICAN UNION

Now that the people of the United States, rudely awakened by the Great War from their dream of peaceful isolation, are perforce making the acquaintance of other nations, they are discovering the treasures of culture possessed by those peoples and the possibilities for friendly co-operation with them for great humanitarian ends. While there is no disputing the importance of closer relations with the countries of Europe and the lessons their history teaches us, let us stop for a moment to consider whether, as Americans, we have not a paramount interest elsewhere.

The United States shares with 20 other independent nations the territory and the political ideals of the Western Hemisphere. Since the close of the wars of independence a century ago, these countries have been living under a republican form of government modeled on that of the United States, and in spite of many an internal struggle, have made a record in showing a "will for peace" that is without parallel in Europe. This ideal of peace and brotherhood in international relations has been the outstanding contribution of the Western Hemisphere and is very marked among the Latin-American countries. It has produced great international lawyers who shine in the councils of the

League of Nations. The Pan-American Union, a voluntary association of all the American republics, existed for many years before the League of Nations came into being. Our political relations with Latin-America are becoming increasingly important and complex, yet the great bulk of our people know little about them. The Latin-American peoples have been hitherto our friends; what they will be in the future depends largely on how much we know and care about the matter. Our young people must know more about Latin-America in order that we may remain friends and may carry on our common tasks.

There are other reasons why we need to study Latin-American history and development. Commercially, the Latin-American republics are of tremendous importance to the United States, representing over 20 per cent. of our annual import and export trade. Their material wealth and progress are an eye-opener to the traveler, whose ideas have generally been formed by his early geography study. Their culture, as revealed in their art, architecture, music, and literature, strikingly exemplifies that love of beauty which is a part of the Latin inheritance and is rightly pointed to as evidence of a deeper interest in what the Latin calls the "spiritual" things of life than in the material. This characteristic merits study, and closer acquaintance will inevitably lead to deeper appreciation.

The fact is, the material importance and the intellectual culture of Latin-America are far more clearly recognized in Europe than in the United States. Contacts have been closer; hundreds, yes, thousands of Latin-American artists, doctors, scientists, and writers have lived in Paris, Berlin, and London, where their achievements are well known.

To what can we ascribe our own astonishing ignorance and lack of appreciation of the Latin-American republics? To the fact that most of us know nothing of their history—the golden key to understanding. And what a fascinating history it is, full of heroic and noble deeds, such as the epic crossing of the Andes by San Martin and his army; the far-seeing statesmanship of Bolivar in calling a Pan-American congress at Panama in 1826; the bloodless overthrow of the monarchy in Brazil; the placing of the statue of Christ on the Andean divide as an eternal symbol of international friendship!

Another fact not generally known is that United States history is commonly taught in Latin-American secondary schools. The names of Washington, Jefferson, and Lincoln are familiar to every Latin-American schoolboy, but how many of our high school students know anything about Bolivar, San Martin, Sucre, Hidalgo, or Drago? It should be a point of honor to be at least as intelligent about these countries as they are about us. Our national hospitality has oftentimes been disgraced—no feebler word will do—by our pitiable ignorance regarding the home countries of Latin-American students among us, nearly a thousand in our colleges and universities, beside many in preparatory schools. These young people, coming from cultured homes, are shocked to find that their

fellow-students, and too often their teachers, know nothing of their country's history, a history as full, perhaps, of noble incidents as that of the United States. Our young people need to know Latin-American history in order to deal fairly and understandingly with the stranger in our midst.

If this picture is rather dark, we may rejoice that the dawn is breaking. American educators, in common with those all over the world, are more and more realizing that since geography and history are the key subjects in creating international sympathy, it is of the utmost importance that we know the historical background of our neighbors. Therefore, the more progressive secondary schools are introducing one or two-semester courses on Latin-American history, and judging from correspondence received in the Pan-American Union a large number of both high school and college teachers are preparing to teach the subject in the near future. Surely the time is not far distant when every teacher of "American" history will be expected, as a matter of course, to know thoroughly the history of all the Americas, linked with our own at so many points, and when no pupil will graduate from a high school in this country without some acquaintance with the war and peace-time heroes of "the other Americans."

A SMALL LIBRARY FOR TEACHING LATIN-AMERICAN HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT

(Designed especially for the high school or elementary college course)

During the last few years there has been increasing recognition of the need of a better acquaintance with the Latin-American republics, both because of their growing political and commercial importance, and because a knowledge of their history, so interwoven with that of the United States, is manifestly necessary for an intelligent understanding of American foreign policy. American educators are more and more realizing this, and many colleges and universities, as well as quite a number of secondary schools, now offer courses in Latin-American history, one large university having over 1,700 students enrolled. It is therefore surprising to find that many of the smaller colleges and even some large institutions do not offer a single course dealing with the history of any of the Latin-American nations, while giving as many as 35 on other foreign countries, including the Near and Far East, India, Russia, etc. This disproportionate emphasis can be explained by the lack of instructors equipped to teach the history of Latin-America, but it can no longer be laid, as it might have been a few years ago, to the lack of good textbooks.

In view of the above facts, and in response to a considerable demand from teachers for helpful material, the Pan-American Union has prepared a list of books forming a small and inexpensive library, which will enable an experienced history teacher to conduct an elementary course. The two books suggested as texts are generally recommended as suitable for the purpose. The list of reference works is a composite one, prepared from a large number of recommendations made by the following specialists: Professors Herbert E. Bolton, University of California; W. W. Pierson, Jr., University of North Carolina; W. S. Robertson, University of Illinois; Hutton Webster, University of Nebraska; Mary W. Williams, Goucher College. The books are listed in groups corresponding to the frequency with which they are cited.

TEXTBOOKS (alternative):

Webster, Hutton: *History of Latin-America*. Boston, D. C. Heath & Co., 1924. 243 pp., 8°, 37 illustrations, 9 plates, 29 small maps, bibliog-

raphy. "An elementary book....for pupils in schools, colleges, and the general reader."

\$1.64

Shepherd, William R.: *Latin-America*. New York, Henry Holt & Co., 1914. 256 pp., map, 12°, brief bibliography. Over one-half the book deals with social, economic, and cultural development.

1.00

REFERENCE WORKS:

Group I—cited by 4:

Calderon, F. Garcia: *Latin-America: Its Rise and Progress*. New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1913. With a preface by Raymond Poincaré.... Translated by Bernard Miall. 400 pp., illus. maps. Rather abstruse for young students, but valuable for teachers, especially as giving the point of view of a Latin-American scholar.

4.50

James, Herman G., and Martin, Percy A.: *Republics of Latin-America. Their History, Governments, and Economic Conditions*. New York, Harper & Bros., 1923. 533 pp., map, bibliography. Contains much material on government; emphasis placed on present-day conditions.

3.00

Latané, John Holladay: *The United States and Latin-America*. Garden City, N. Y., Doubleday, Page & Co., 1920. 346 pp., 2 maps. Political relations with the United States.

2.50

Robertson, William Spence: *History of the Latin-American Nations*. New York, D. Appleton & Co., 1925. 630 pp., maps. Valuable reference work because of thorough treatment and extensive bibliographical aids.

4.00

Shepherd, William R.: *Hispanic Nations of the New World. "Chronicles of America" series*. New Haven, Conn., Yale University Press, 1919. 251 pp. Sketch of Latin-American history during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. (Not regularly obtainable apart from the rest of the series, but a Textbook Edition may be purchased in quantity by educational institutions; price, \$1.50 per copy, plus carriage.)

\$14.00

Group II—cited by 3:

Bryce, James: *South America: Observations and Impressions*. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1914. 611 pp., maps. Analysis of conditions and causes by a keen student of history and politics; almost no historical material.

\$4.50

Warsaw, J.: *The New Latin-America*. New York, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1922. 415 pp., plates, map, bibliography. Present-day conditions—economic, political, social, cultural.

3.00

Group III—cited by 2:

Bourne, Edward Gaylord: *Spain in America: 1430-1580*. New York, Harper & Bros., 1904. 350 pp., maps. A scholarly treatment of the period of discovery and colonization.

9.25

Priestly, Herbert I.: *The Mexican Nation, A History*. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1925. 507 pp., illus. maps, bibliography. From earliest times to the Obregon Administration.

4.00

Stuart, Graham H.: *Latin-America and the United States*. New York, The Century Company, 1922. 404 pp., maps. Political relations with the United States.

3.75

\$10.00

NOTE:—Some of the books cited under Reference Works are widely used as college texts, where a more extended treatment of the subject is desired.

TOPICAL OUTLINES AND READING LISTS:

Bolton, Herbert E.: *The History of the Americas. History 8A-8B, 1924-25*. University of California, Syllabus Series, No. 168.

\$0.75

Hoskins, H. L.: *Guide to Latin-American History*. New York, D. C. Heath & Co., 1922.

1.00

Pierson, W. W.: *Hispanic-American History, 1826-1920*, Syllabus No. VII. Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, Division of Intercourse and Education, 407 West 117th St., New York City.

Williams, Mary W.: *Outline for the Incidental Study of Latin-American History in Secondary Schools. The History Teachers' Magazine* (now *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Philadelphia), June, 1918. Suggestive in cases where it is not possible to introduce a course on Latin-American History alone.

A Brief Basic Bibliography for Eleventh Year American History

PREPARED BY LOUIS I. TOHILL,
UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, MINNEAPOLIS

GENERAL WORKS

Bassett, J. S., *A Short History of the United States*. Macmillan.

Channing, Edward, *History of the United States*. 8 vols. Macmillan.

Chronicles of America. 50 vols. Yale Press.

Elson, H. W., *History of the United States*. Macmillan.

COLONIAL PERIOD

Andrews, C. M., *Colonial Self-Government*. Harper's.

Becker, C. L., *Beginnings of the American People*. Houghton Mifflin & Co.

Bourne, E. G., *Spain in America*. Harper's.

Cheyney, E. P., *European Background of American History*. Harper's.

Earle, Mrs. A. M., *Child Life in Colonial Days*. Macmillan.

Earle, Mrs. A. M., *Home Life in Colonial Days*. Macmillan.

Eggleston, Edward, *Beginners of a Nation*. D. Appleton & Co.

Greene, E. B., *Foundations of American Nationality*. American Book Co.

Howard, G. E., *Preliminaries of the Revolution*. Harper's.

Lecky, W. E. H., *The American Revolution*, J. A. Woodburn, ed. D. Appleton & Co.

Parkman, Francis, *Half-Century of Conflict*. Little, Brown & Co.

Parkman, Francis, *LaSalle and the Discovery of the Great West*. Little, Brown & Co.

Thwaites, R. G., *The Colonies*. Longmans.

EARLY CONSTITUTIONAL PERIOD

Burgess, J. W., *The Middle Period*. Scribner's.

Chadwick, F. E., *Causes of the Civil War*. Harper's.

Channing, Edward, *Jeffersonian System*. Harper's.

Dodd, W. E., *Expansion and Conflict*. Houghton Mifflin & Co.

Fish, C. R., *Development of American Nationality*. American Book Co.

Fiske, John, *Critical Period*. Houghton Mifflin & Co.

Garrison, G. P., *Westward Extension*. Harper's.

Hart, A. B., *Formation of the Union*. Longmans.

Hosmer, J. K., *Outcome of the Civil War*. Harper's.

Hosmer, J. K., *Appeal to Arms*. Harper's.

Johnson, Allen, *Union and Democracy*. Houghton Mifflin & Co.

MacDonald, William, *Jacksonian Democracy*. Harper's.

McLaughlin, A. C., *The Confederation and the Constitution*. Harper's.

McMaster, J. B., *History of the People of the United States*. 8 vols. D. Appleton & Co.

Rhodes, J. F., *History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850*. 8 vols. Macmillan.

Roosevelt, T. R., *Winning the West*. 4 vols. G. Putnam Sons.

Turner, F. J., *The Rise of the New West*. Harper's.

RECENT AMERICAN HISTORY

Beard, C. A., *Contemporary American History*. Macmillan.

Coolidge, A. C., *America as a World Power*. Macmillan.

Dewey, D. R., *National Problems*. Harper's.

Dunning, W. A., *Reconstruction, Political and Economic*. Harper's.

Gibbons, H. A., *The New Map of Europe*. Century.

Haworth, P. L., *The United States in Our Own Times*. Scribner's.

Hayes, C. J. H., *A Brief History of the Great War*. Macmillan.

Latane, J. H., *America as a World Power*. Harper's.

Ogg, F. A., *National Progress*. Harper's.

Paxson, F. L., *The Last American Frontier*. Macmillan.

Paxson, F. L., *Recent History of the United States*. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Shippee, L. B., *Recent American History*. Macmillan.

BIOGRAPHY

Bruce, P. A., *Daniel Boone and the Wilderness Road*. Macmillan.

Dodd, W. E., *Jefferson Davis*.

Hunt, Gaillard, J. C. Calhoun. Jacobs.

Lodge, H. C., *George Washington*. Houghton Mifflin & Co.

Lodge, H. C., *Daniel Webster*. Houghton Mifflin & Co.

Morse, J. T., *John Quincy Adams*. Houghton Mifflin & Co.

Morse, J. T., *Benjamin Franklin*. Houghton Mifflin & Co.

Schurz, Carl, *Henry Clay*. Houghton Mifflin & Co.

Sumner, W. G., *Alexander Hamilton*.

Tarbell, I. M., *Life of Lincoln*. 2 vols. Macmillan.

SPECIAL FIELDS

Bogart, E. L., *Economic History of the United States*. Longmans.

Bogart, E. L., and Thompson, C. M., *Readings in the Economic History of the United States*. Longmans.

Brigham, A. P., *Geographic Influences in American History*. Ginn.

Coman, Katharine, *Industrial History of the United States*. Macmillan.

Dewey, D. R., *The Financial History of the United States*. Longmans.

Fish, C. R., *American Diplomacy*. Henry Holt.

Sparks, E. E., *Expansion of the American People*. Scott, Foresman.

Stanwood, Edward, *History of the Presidency*. 2 vols. Houghton Mifflin.

Tarbell, I. M., *The Tariff in Our Own Times*. Macmillan.

Tyler, M. C., *Literature of American History*.

SOURCES

Hart, A. B., ed., *American History Told by Contemporaries*. 4 vols. Macmillan.

MacDonald, W., ed., *Documentary Source Book of American History*. Macmillan.

Muzzey, D. S., ed., *Readings in American History*. Ginn.

CANADA

Duncan, P. M., *The Story of the Canadian People*. Macmillan.

Grant, W. L., *A History of Canada*. Heineman.

Wrong, G. M., *Ontario Public School History of Canada*. Ryerson Press.

LATIN-AMERICA

Hart, A. B., *The Monroe Doctrine: an interpretation*. Little, Brown.

James, H. G., and Martin, P. M., *The Republics of Latin America*. Harper's.

Latane, J. H., *The United States and Latin-America*. Doubleday, Page.

Robertson, W. S., *History of the Latin Nations*. D. Appleton.

Robertson, W. S., *The Rise of the Spanish-American Republics as Told in the Lives of Their Liberators*. D. Appleton.

Webster, H., *History of Latin-America*. D. C. Heath.

RECENT TEXTBOOKS

Beard, C. A., and Beard, M. R., *History of the United States*. The Macmillan Co., 1925. Written in topical rather than narrative form. Social and economic aspects stressed, especially as they affect political history. Little space is given to pre-constitutional period.

Fish, C. R., *History of America*. American Book Co., 1925. Topical treatment. Social and economic history given prominence.

- Guiteau, W. B., *The History of the United States*. Houghton Mifflin & Co., 1924. A good blending of social and industrial with political history. Slightly more than the usual emphasis on military history.
- Hulbert, A. B., *United States History*. Doubleday Page & Co., 1923. Features biographies by picture and by sketch. Western development given more than the usual amount of space.
- Muzzey, D. S., *American History*. Ginn & Co., 1922. An evenly balanced treatment of political history of the United States.
- Thompson, C. M., *History of the United States*. Benjamin H. Sanborn & Co., 1922. Chief emphasis is placed on economic history.
- West, W. M., *History of the American People*. Allyn and Bacon, 1922. Vigorous style. Foundations of American government in colonial times emphasized. Pedagogical devices excellent. Unusually clear statement.

Some Recent Suggestive and Helpful Supplementary Works

LIST PREPARED BY MARY V. CARNEY,
CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, ST. PAUL, AND
LIVIA APPEL, MINNESOTA STATE
HISTORICAL SOCIETY

- Bercovici, Konrad. *On New Shores*. 302 pp. Century Company, 1925.

Very readable, informing accounts, well within the range of the high school student, of foreign emigration to the United States. Each of eighteen chapters deals with a different nationality, touching on racial characteristics, causes for emigration, settlements made in America, and contributions to our development. Charming drawings illustrate the text.

- Bradford, Gamaliel. *Damaged Souls*. 284 pp. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1923.

Biographical and analytical sketches of Benedict Arnold, Thomas Paine, Aaron Burr, John Randolph, John Brown, P. T. Barnum, and Benjamin F. Butler.

- Bradford, Gamaliel. *Union Portraits*. 330 pp. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1916.

Generals McClellan, Hooker, Meade, Thomas, and Sherman; Stanton, Seward, and Sumner.

- Bradford, Gamaliel. *Wives*. 298 pp. Harper and Brothers, 1925.

Mrs. Lincoln, Mrs. Arnold, Theodosia Burr, Mrs. Madison, Mrs. Davis, Mrs. Butler, and Mrs. Blaine.

These biographical sketches are by no means uniform in their appeal to the interests of high school students, nor in their suitability for school use, but they are far too valuable to be neglected entirely. They will do more than dozens of biographies of the more formal type to stimulate that "sense of reality" that conjures up real men and women out of the past, rather than mere oil portraits and bronze busts.

- Brooks, Geraldine. *Dames and Daughters of the Young Republic*. 287 pp. Crowell Publishing Company, 1901.

Chatty accounts of the lives and personalities of Dolly Madison, Sarah Jay, Theodosia Burr, Martha Jefferson, Rachel Jackson, and others. Much less discriminating than Gamaliel Bradford's treatment of some of the members of this group, but useful for girls who find the Bradford sketches somewhat beyond their range.

- Dexter, Elisabeth A. *Colonial Women of Affairs; a Study of Women in Business and the Professions in America before 1776*. 204 pp. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924.

The seven chapters deal with the innkeeper, the "she-merchant," the artificer, the nurse, the school teacher, the landed proprietor, and "with tongue, pen, and printer's ink" (authors, religious leaders, actresses, and printers). Perhaps too matter-of-fact and lacking in color for the immature student.

- Earle, Alice M. *Child Life in Colonial Days*. 418 pp. Macmillan Company, 1899.

Dress, secular and religious education, discipline, manners, recreation, and needlework of the young people in the colonies are discussed, in an interesting and readable manner, from points of view within the range of the average high school student.

- Earle, Alice M. *Home Life in Colonial Days*. 470 pp. Macmillan Company, 1898 (new edition, 1925).

Interesting accounts, well written and generously illustrated, of every phase of the domestic life of the colonists. Intimate glimpses are given of domestic occupations, home furnishings, dress, pastimes, and religious customs. Various chapters will appeal to special interests of some boys and girls.

- Fitzpatrick, John C. *The Spirit of the Revolution*. 300 pp. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1914.

Besides a chapter on the Declaration of Independence, which includes a history of the actual document, this volume gives some interesting sidelights on the secondary phases of the American Revolution—the organization of the army, financial difficulties, the military uniform, the problem of feeding the army, military bands, and other topics. Of chief interest, perhaps, to the mature boy.

- Garland, Hamlin. *A Son of the Middle Border*. The Macmillan Company, 1917.

An autobiography which, in a sense, epitomizes in the history of one family, the whole story of westward migration. The author is perhaps too introspective to be capable of appreciation by any but the more mature students.

- Gore, J. Rogers. *The Boyhood of Abraham Lincoln*. Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1921.

Stories of Abraham Lincoln's youth told to the author by Austin Gollaher, a playmate of Lincoln's.

"Greeks of the New World," in the *Mentor* for February, 1925.

A brief, but impressive, account of the remarkable development of Maya civilization in Mexico and Central America.

- Grinnell, George B. *Beyond the Old Frontier*. 374 pp. Scribner's, 1913.

- Grinnell, George B. *The Story of the Indian*. 270 pp. Appleton Company, 1895.

The first book deals with the adventures of fur-trappers, explorers, and Indian fighters on the Great Plains and in the Rockies. The second is one of the best general descriptions of the customs and characteristics of the Indian tribes of the West.

Both books offer good material for occasional brief class reports, and are especially well adapted for boys and girls whose interests and reading abilities need stimulating.

- Harland, Marion. *Some Colonial Homesteads and Their Stories*. 511 pp. Putnam's, 1897.

- Harland, Marion. *More Colonial Homesteads and Their Stories*. 449 pp. Putnam's, 1899.

Readable and interesting accounts of several of the famous estates of the colonial period, spiced with friendly and entertaining gossip of certain romances in the lives of their occupants. Well illustrated with photographs and drawings. A book that most girls will enjoy.

- Melville, Herman. *Moby Dick*. Oxford University Press.

A unique and remarkable tale of the whale fisheries. This and other books by the same author are reviewed in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK for December, 1925.

- Minnigerode, Meade. *The Fabulous Forties, 1840-1850; a Presentation of Private Life*. 345 pp. Putnam's, 1924.

In his introduction the author alludes to the decade of the forties as a "brilliant three-ring circus," the spectacular elements of which he proceeds to describe in a series of chapters which touch on politics, social life, music, and the drama, westward migration, and other romantic aspects of our national life. The illustrations are interesting.

- Nicolay, Helen. *Our Nation in the Building*. Century, 1916.

Probably the most valuable single volume that could be added to the school library to impart a sense of actual

contact with the stirring vitality and vivid personalities of the period from 1789 to 1860. A gentle irony and humor pervades the style, and appears occasionally even in the chapter titles.

Page, Ralph W. *Dramatic Moments in American Diplomacy*. 284 pp. Doubleday Page and Company, 1918.

Colorful accounts of several episodes in our diplomatic relations with England, France, China, Spain, Panama, Columbia, and Germany.

Pettengill, Ray W., translator. *Letters from America, 1776-1779, Being Letters of Brunswick, Hessian, and Waldeck Officers with the British Armies during the Revolution*. Houghton Mifflin Company, 1924.

Among the letters, which are translated into a very interesting English, are a number written from various

localities along the seaboard, which afford intimate glimpses of the life of the colonists through the eyes of the foreigner, as well as sidelights on the war.

Pupin, Michael. *From Immigrant to Inventor*. 396 pp. Scribner's, 1923.

The autobiography of a little Serbian shepherd boy who became professor of electro-mechanics in Columbia University and an inventor of world-wide renown. The simplicity and modesty of the writer's personality are reflected in the clarity of his mode of expression, and the most technical discussions are brought within the range of the lay reader. The portrayal of the progress of invention in the field of physics and the little glimpses given of the human side of the great leaders in the work cannot fail to be of great interest and value to students who are receiving their first introduction to science.

The Use of Notebooks in American History Classes

BY HOWARD E. WILSON, HIGH SCHOOL, STEVENS POINT, WISCONSIN

In what I may say about my subject I shall try to be practical by seeking to determine the value of notebooks by an analysis of a laboratory experiment in their use. Whether we come to agree that notebooks are or are not valuable, I think we must all agree on the value of trying to decide whether they are or not. Occasionally people say that we who teach history do not make our subject live up to its full possibilities. If that is in the least way true, we would be wise in seeking any methods available which may make our work more effective. Since some teachers contend that notebooks offer a way of doing this, their contention is worth investigating.

In the preparation of this paper I first thought it would be a good thing to review briefly the advantages and disadvantages of notebooks in general. Accordingly, seeking the opinions of other people regarding the value of notebooks, I read through a number of texts, more magazine articles, and interviewed a number of teachers. All the disadvantages and advantages suggested from these various sources were listed in some seven or eight arguments for each side. This list of arguments, I thought, would make an excellent introduction for this paper. But when I came to analyze the list more closely I was not so sure, for I found that all the advantages listed were but *possibilities* in the wise use of good notebooks, and the disadvantages were but dangers in their improper use or construction. Neither advantages or disadvantages are inherent in notebooks as such. Therefore, the first conclusion forcing itself to the front regarding this subject is that it is unsafe to generalize about it. Our information concerning the use of notebooks and our experience in that field are, as yet, too varied and too disorganized to warrant reaching any general conclusions about them.

With that apparent, it became not only not worth while, but possibly even dangerous to burden you with the general lists of advantages and disadvantages I had prepared. So that part of the manuscript fell

victim to the ever-cavernous waste basket, not without some heartache on my part, I assure you, for it covered several beautifully typewritten pages and represented a good many hours of work. The operation, or amputation, left me without an introduction, so I determined to plunge at once into the essential part of what I have to say; that is, to present a report on an experiment recently made in the use of notebooks. Since we do not have a sufficient body of data to generalize, the next best thing is to particularize, and so I shall give a specific report on experiments we have been making in the high school of Stevens Point, Wisconsin, during the past two years. In this high school, our exceedingly practical laboratory for the experiment, American history is required of all students in their twelfth year and is a full year course. The senior class there numbers about one hundred and twenty-five; a goodly percentage of this number is of foreign parentage, and a large group of the students comes from surrounding rural districts where the elementary schools are very poor. Two years ago we found that our history work with these students was not maintaining its place in the curriculum, but was gradually losing ground to other subjects. In order to offset this tendency, we of the history department formed ourselves into a "ways and means" committee, intent on improving our courses, making them more interesting and, at the same time, more effective. With this purpose in mind, we began experimenting along various lines; our experiments led us into notebook work and, by a series of evolutionary steps, we have produced the type of notebook used in our classes today.

I shall not bother you with a recitation of the various steps through which we passed in our experimenting, but shall describe at once the notebook as we use it today. It seems that everybody who writes or talks of notebooks has a slightly different conception of what one is, and I shall be like others in that respect. Our notebook differs, first of all, in that it

contains, not only the written work of the student, but also a framework of mimeographed material, prepared by the teacher, but handed to the student to guide him in his historical activities. I shall describe this mimeographed framework of the notebook first. Each semester's work is arranged on about seventy-five pages and is sold to the student at cost. This cost, about fifty cents per semester, is not prohibitive, because the notebook takes the place of notepad and theme paper the student would have to use in the course if it were not for the notebook.

The first page of this mimeographed material is a general outline of all of American history as we have it organized for teaching purposes. This outline serves as an overview for the entire course. It divides American history into seven periods and the notebook is arranged in seven corresponding parts. The arrangement of periods is based upon Professor Tryon's recommendations in the "Teaching of History," adapted to meet local conditions. Under these seven large periods are arranged a total of about one hundred and twenty lessons for the entire year. Each of these divisions, or groups of lessons, is preceded by a one-page "Introduction," as it is called, or overview of that particular period. Following this page are rather lengthy reading lists for that period, reading references classified under (1) Collateral References, (2) Biography, Letters, Essays, Travels, Reminiscences, etc., and (3) Imaginative Literature or Historical Fiction. These reading lists for the period are not to be confused with those for the daily lesson which will be mentioned later. On the same pages with these general lists, we have also a list of motion pictures portraying life in the period under discussion, a list which is unexpectedly long and which has been extremely helpful in arousing interest among our students.

Having thus briefly described the general organization of the mimeographed material in our notebook, let us take up the individual lesson, which is the unit of organization. There are about one hundred and twenty lessons for the entire year; this number is sufficiently small to leave ample time for reviews, examination, current events, and the like. Each of these lessons is a topical unit, yet taken together they form a connected story of the whole of American history. Each lesson contains, as a framework, five items of mimeographed material, which I shall describe briefly.

The first item in our "Table of Contents" for the individual lesson is a brief, skeleton outline of the material to be covered in that day's lesson. We tried for a time having students make their own outlines, but this was not successful, since the outlines were little more than "hashovers" of the paragraph headings of the text. Our substitute for that unsuccessful plan was that of placing in the hands of the students the main headings of the outlines which we, as teachers, had found valuable in our lesson plans. These outlines served to organize the work exactly as we wanted to teach it, and made us far more independent of the text than we dared be otherwise. In

the outlines we made no effort to follow closely any one text, but availed ourselves of the best portions of a number of texts. A typical example of the outlines is that on "The Climax of the Slavery Struggle," which is as follows:

15. The Climax of the Slavery Struggle.
 - a. The increasing demands of the South.
 - (1) Status of slavery under the Missouri Compromise.
 - (2) Status after the "squatter sovereignty" bill.
 - (3) Status under the Dred Scott decision.
 - b. Lincoln and Douglas in Illinois.
 - (1) Douglas, the "Little Giant" of the Democrats.
 - (2) Lincoln, the anti-slavery Unionist.
 - (3) The Lincoln-Douglas debates define the issues.
 - c. John Brown's raid crystallizes public opinion.
 - d. The break in the Union.
 - (1) The election of 1860.
 - (2) The beginning of secession.

Each outline is suggestive and not informational. Each is a unit, yet is closely connected with what goes before and comes after. The outlines are the backbone of the notebook, about which all other material is arranged.

Second in importance only to the outlines is a list of "Reading Materials" with each lesson, giving page references to the material covered in the outline. This list includes references to a few texts, a larger number of collateral volumes such as are usually found in the high school library, and a few volumes of collected source material. The lesson outline, as we said before, deliberately is not sufficient for the preparation of any lesson by the student; adequate preparation necessitates reading. The reading lists direct the student in this "adequate preparation." Each reference is very short, rarely more than two or three pages; our object in suggesting so many of them is to encourage students to consult several texts and many reference books during the course of the year. Each student owns a textbook in which, of course, he does most of his reading, yet all students do not use the same text, and all other available history books are placed on library reserve shelves where reading from them is considered a requisite of the course.

The third item of the daily lesson material is a short list of suggested topics for special report. For example, with the outline given above were such suggested topics as "The Dred Scott Case," "Stephen Douglas," "Abraham Lincoln's Preparation for the Presidency," "John Brown's Raid and Its Results," "How Lincoln Was Nominated." We have stressed these reports very much. Four or five topics are listed with each lesson, and in order to avoid the inevitable query of "Where can I find material on this topic?" we include a reference or two for each one. However, we stress in class the fact that students are by no means limited to these suggested sources of information in the preparation of their reports.

The fourth item is a list of questions and problems. Especial attention is given to thought questions here, although quiz questions are inserted also. In making daily assignments the attention of the class is called to certain questions in the list, answers to which become a part of the lesson assignment. These ques-

tions, since they cover all of the work studied, also serve as a basis for review work.

Then, fifth and last in the "Table of Contents" for the individual lesson mimeographed material, we include a quotation illustrative of the lesson. For example, the quotation given with the lesson on "The Climax of the Slavery Struggle" is from Abraham Lincoln and reads:

"We are now well into the fifth year since a policy was initiated with the avowed object and confident promise of putting an end to slavery agitation. Under the operation of that policy, that agitation has not only not ceased, but has constantly augmented. In my opinion, it will not cease until a crisis shall have been reached and passed. 'A house divided against itself cannot stand.' I believe this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free."

These quotations, never very long, are inserted for the purposes of arousing the student's interest and helping to fix in his mind the most important thing from any day's work. It is taken from either secondary or source material and is illustrative of that lesson as a unit in the story of American history.

Besides the mimeographed material handed to the student, I said the notebook included written work done by the student himself. Space is left for this purpose with each lesson. What use the student makes of this space I shall discuss shortly; first, it may be of interest to explain the arrangement of all this material in the notebook. As completed the daily lesson in the notebook looks like this—all the material on a single lesson is on two pages, facing each other in the notebook. On the first page, occupying a quarter to a fifth of it, we have the lesson outline. Below that, occupying the rest of the page, is the space for written work. At the top of the opposite page, directly across from the outline, is the list of reading materials. Beside that list are the few suggested topics for special report, with references for each. Below these are the "Questions and Problems," and below them the quotation illustrative of the lesson.

This daily lesson, as I have said, is the foundation of the notebook. One hundred and twenty such lessons are arranged in seven sections corresponding to seven periods in American history. Each of these sections is prefaced by an introductory overview and a general list of historical literature on that period. Four or five outline maps for each semester and a final page of "Suggestions for Semester Review," complete the book as it is placed in the hands of the pupil.

This notebook, in the hands of the class, becomes the basis of our course. Therein, I think, is the first and fundamental reason for any success we have had with it. We do not make the notebook a side issue of the course, but we base our whole organization of history on it and organize all our teaching around it. The notebook has displaced the text as the foundation of the course and has become the chief instrument with which we try to teach history. Yet it is not merely a new version of a textbook, for it contains the written work of the student as well as mimeographed material handed to him. After its use by a student it is, in truth, a record of that student's his-

torical activities. Thus it is more individual, more usable, more practical than a textbook alone; it is also more complete and better organized than a notebook which contains only the written work of the student.

Now, let us discuss briefly a few of the benefits we think have followed the use of these notebooks in our classes.

First, to a certain extent, we believe we have clarified our history teaching, by presenting to the student a skeleton outline of the historical events studied in our classes, in the order, and in a device demonstrating their comparative importance, as studied. We have not followed a text rigorously, but have substituted for the text our own organization of history. The arrangement we use is desirable so far as the teachers are concerned and, for that reason if for no other, is more understandable in classes conducted by those teachers. We encourage students first to read the text material for a given lesson, then to study the outline, mentally arranging the text material in the order suggested by the outline. In completion of the assignment they are expected to fill in the gaps left incomplete or even unmentioned in the text, by reading from some of the collateral references. The students have done this to a large extent and their work, following the outline as it does, seems to have more definiteness, less vagueness, and better organization about it than before.

Secondly, we have systematized, yet not mechanized, the written work of the student. As we said a few minutes ago, a space for written work is left with each lesson, this space to be filled in as the teacher suggests or directs. It may be that a ten-minute quiz is to be written there during the class period. Or notes on a short lecture, or the answer to some one of the questions in the notebook, or the notes taken on some particularly important reading, or even notes on class discussion! In short, any material considered of more than passing importance to the average student may be inserted in this space. One important use we have made of it is as a depository for notes taken on special reports given in class. We have an average of one such report given each day on some topic of special importance in connection with that day's lesson. The entire class is held responsible for the material presented in the report; notes written into the notebook offer the easiest and best way of securing this information for review. This use of reports has been very successful; often students will ask for topics suggested in the notebook weeks ahead of the time for their presentation; and often we have been able to "reach" through reports those students who were normally but little interested in our work.

The point of this discussion regarding the written work in connection with the notebook, however, is that every student is expected to put certain material in certain order in his notebook each day; then notebooks are collected and corrected as the teacher desires, or finds necessary. If the need for order, neatness, and accuracy is carefully explained to the class, the concentration of written work in orderly

and logical notebooks saves time for the teacher in the matter of correcting papers. The systematization does not destroy the initiative of the student, and we prevent any great amount of copying, I think, by having the written work done during the class period.

The third, and possible most important, benefit resulting from the use of notebooks with us, is the development of the reading habit among our students. The value of wide reading, especially in history and the social sciences, needs no proof here. In a recent article in the *Yale Review*, Professor Trevelyan points out that history and literature are indissolubly linked; it is impossible to tell where one leaves off and the other begins. Reading from literature, whether it be imaginative or an authentic record of fact, is an essential of both good education and good history. And our school librarian tells us that the historical section of our library is more widely used now than before we adopted the notebook plan. It is impossible for the teacher to dictate to the class all the books he would like to suggest in order to arouse the active interest of the many types of individuals before him; it is equally impossible for the student to remember the books which are suggested unless their titles are before him in permanent lists. That is the merit of the notebook in this respect; it acts as an aid in keeping constantly before the pupil's attention a wealth of historical literature and in guiding the pupil's application of that literature to American history.

Another aspect of the reading, and an argument in favor of our notebook system, I think, is the fact that no two students get the same amount of benefit from the same book. In class it is noticeable that different students have "favorites" among the books available to the class. Some like Elson; others Beard, or Bassett, or Muzzey, or Fish, or Wilson, or some other book. It is easiest and productive of the best results to have the student prepare his assignments from the book which interests him most. And it is partly to take advantage of this liking for different books by different students that we make our notebook with auxiliary readings from any of many books, rather than a textbook, the basis of our course. Another argument in favor of lists of reading references lies in the fact that a surprisingly large number of students have some historical material available at home. The reference assignments make these books usable for the history class when, for the average student without a reference to guide him, they would remain useless.

The interest students have shown in the lists of imaginative literature or fictional material for history has been very great. Here the value of such lists has been not only to encourage students to read more of such material, but also to direct them in the application for history purposes of much material they have already read. On days when we discuss reading lists in class, the exclamation, "Oh, yes, I remember that now. But I didn't know it could be used in history!" is rather common. Even students who have read quite widely often do not apply the knowledge

gained in their outside reading until a direct application is pointed out to them. Biographical material is almost as popular as fiction. I read not long ago of a high school in West Virginia which had found it worth while to have a series of lectures given to the student body on the general subject of "Biographies." The lectures aroused keen interest among the students there; our small experiment in getting students interested in biography has been very successful also. Students are almost universally interested in the lives of men and women and, since lists of biographies have been placed before them and encouragement given to their reading, more of it is being done now than formerly. Students, too, are on the lookout for additional material. Now, much more than before our notebooks were used, students bring to my desk magazine and newspaper articles of both biographical and fictional nature with historical bearing.

Along the line of reading, we have had one entirely unexpected result from the notebook. As I have said, we inserted with each day's lesson a quotation illustrative of the lesson. Oftentimes this quotation has been the means of inducing a student to read the setting from which it is taken. As a result Webster's "Reply to Hayne" and Bryan's "Cross of Gold" speech, and other such material have been read by several students who would not otherwise have done this type of reading. Invariably the quotations have aroused sufficient interest among the students to more than justify their inclusion in the notebook.

In conclusion, we have pointed out three results of the use of these notebooks in our classes. We believe we have clarified history for our students; we have systematized, yet not mechanized much of the written work of the students; and we have developed the reading habit among those students to a greater degree than it existed before. For these reasons we are continuing the use of the notebooks in our classes. Doubtless we shall see many opportunities of improving them as we go along. We do not, by any stretch of the imagination, mean to say, of course, that the use of notebooks such as we have described is the only way of securing the advantages we have mentioned. There are many other ways, and probably better ways, but we have found this to be one way. Our experience with notebooks leads us to believe that they are valuable, that their advantages outweigh their disadvantages.

E. L. Macveagh, in an article on the Spirit of Fascism (*World's Work* for January), gives an extract from the "Spiritual Rule of Discipline" of the Fascist which shows the extent to which the party has become a school of ethics: "Be proud to be an unknown soldier; Respect the experience of age and the innocence of youth, and the sacred mission of maternity; Respect other people's religious and moral convictions; Respect the authority of your superiors and of the law; Respect the rights of your friends and of your enemies; Respect the hierarchy, the definer of worth; Respect womanhood, thinking of your mother."

A Lesson in Source Materials

BY ROGER C. HACKETT

The senior class in American history in the Pine-land School for Girls, Salemburg, N. C., was recently given a practical illustration of the difficulties under which the historian of ancient or medieval Europe must labor in order properly to understand and evaluate his sources. It is well known that practically all ancient and medieval manuscripts, especially those which are not originals, are more or less full of mistakes of various kinds and that before such documents can be utilized by the historian their original meaning must be established.

In order to show how documents were changed in copying, the members of the class, taken alphabetically, were required to copy a paragraph of 138 words. That is, the paragraph was first given to the girl who stood at the top of the class roll, alphabetically. She copied the paragraph and passed her copy to the next girl who copied the copy and passed her copy on and so on until the entire class of 24 members had copied the paragraph. Collaboration or asking for information was strictly forbidden and as each copy, after being passed on to be copied, was returned to the teacher, it was impossible to refer to the earlier copies of the paragraph to ascertain the original spelling or punctuation marks. Each pupil had plenty of time to make her copy, as it took two weeks for the paragraph to go around the class. Every girl was instructed to make an exact copy—word for word, letter for letter, comma for comma, and period for period—of the paragraph given her, even if it contained palpable mistakes. The purpose of the exercise was fully explained beforehand in order to lead the pupils to observe the rules to the letter and to be as careful as possible. All the copying was required to be done on 8 by 10½-inch ruled paper in ink in order to make the work uniform.

The following easily comprehensible paragraph, written in an exceedingly plain longhand, was given to the first girl to copy:

"No individual of the nineteenth century, not Coleridge nor Sir William Hamilton, nor Macaulay, nor Whewell, nor Mark Pattison, came so near mastering the whole range of human knowledge as Lord Acton. Henry Sidgwick used to say that however much you knew about anything Acton was certain to know more. De Laveleye recorded his astonishment at finding on the table of his host 'all the new books (in all languages) on all subjects, read and annotated.' Gladstone was accustomed to dismiss obtruse points that arose in conversation with the remark, 'We must ask Lord Acton.' To be with Acton was like being with the cultivated mind of Europe. In the deep tones of his voice there seemed to sound the accents of history."

—G. P. GOUGH, *History and Historians in the Nineteenth Century*, 2nd ed., p. 391. (Slightly adapted.)

This is the way the same paragraph came from the hands of the twenty-fourth girl:

"No iudiidual of the eighteenth century nat coluridge nar Sir William Hamilton, nar Marowary, nar Whurlime, nar Mack Patterson, come so near masteriug the whole raunge of human knowledg as Lard Acton Henry Sid Quick used to say that however Action was Certain to know mare.

"The knowledge recorded his last all the books in (all the languages) are all subjects—Read and Aruwslated; Glad Stone accustomed to discuss abstrive Paints that arose in Conversation with the newarps we must ask Lard action; to be with with Action was like beuiug with the Cultivated wind of Europe. In deeptone of his voice there seemed to sound the acccuts of History—G. P. Lock, Histary and Historian in the eighteenth centry (slightly adopted) Ind end, P. 391."

In all 183 mistakes were made, an average of 7 15/24 a pupil! The median number of mistakes was six; the modal numbers, two, three, and six. Not a single girl made an exact copy, although one girl made only one mistake and three others made only two. The highest number of mistakes made were 26, 19, and 17.

Besides the numerous mistakes of copying in the matters of punctuation and capitalization, many more serious errors were made. Numerous words were omitted, added, divided, combined, or misspelled. One girl omitted an entire line, thus completely altering the original meaning. Altogether, the paragraph was reduced from 138 to 126 words, although one word ("with") was repeated and two proper names were divided into two words. Some of the mistakes neutralized each other. For instance, one girl changed a comma into a period, while, later, another girl changed it back into a comma. "Sound" was rendered "souned" by a half dozen girls before it returned to its correct spelling. "Century" changed to "centry" and back again to "century" before assuming its final incorrect form.

It is noticeable that all of the proper names, with one exception, were transformed, some of them weirdly. "De Laveleye" changed successively to "De Loveleye," "The Loveleye," "The Loneleye," "The Lowleye," "the howleye," and then assumed its final form as "The knowledge" before half the class had copied the paragraph. "Sidgwick" was changed successively into "Sidgurick," "Sidquilk," "Sid quirick," "Sid qurilk," "Sid quirick," "Sid quick," and "Sid Quick."

Long and unfamiliar words were also stumbling blocks—thus the metamorphosis of "annotated" into "aruwslated."

Many minor errors were caused by poor chi-rography and especially by the failure to distinguish between "a" and "o," and "u" and "n."

A person dependent for his knowledge of "Laird Action" on the final rendering of the paragraph would necessarily obtain an impression false in some particulars if he obtained any impression at all from the jumble of words! Probably a trained historian of the future, having no supplementary or parallel sources, would render the final form of our paragraph something like this:

"No individual of the eighteenth century, not Coluridge, nor Sir William Hamilton, nor Marowary, nor Whurlime, nor Mack Patterson, all of whom were famous for their encyclopedic learning, came so near mastering the whole range of human knowledge as Laird Action, who was probably a Scotchman. Henry Sidney Quick, an eminent scholar of the period, used to say that Action certainly knew more than any man alive.

"Action read (and translated?) all books in all languages on all subjects. Glad Stone, another of Action's eminent contemporaries, when the subject of paint (as used in art?) would come up in conversation, would always say, "We must ask Laird Action before we can be sure we are right." This is merely illustrative of the fact that Action was an authority on all subjects. It was said that to be with him was like being with the cultivated mind of Europe and that in the deep tones of his voice there seemed to sound the accents of history. (Authority: A manuscript copy of a portion [page 391, probably the last page] of a lost work by G. P. Lock entitled *History and Historians in the Eighteenth Century*.)"

This would give the essential meaning of the original, even though it is replete with errors, the most serious ones being the misspellings of the proper names and the mistake in the century in which Acton lived.

Ethics as a High School Study

BY DEAN MILTON BENNION, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF UTAH

The study of the mother tongue has long been recognized as fundamental and has quite generally been required of all high school students. We are coming now to see that the social studies are no less fundamental; indeed, from the standpoint of training for citizenship, correct understanding of social problems and disposition to bear social responsibilities in every day practice are much more important than is study of the mother tongue beyond that required in the first eight grades.

Ability to evaluate social situations as they arise in the experience of the citizen is not, however, dependent upon his knowledge of the facts of social life and social institutions alone, but also upon his understanding and appreciation of moral values and moral obligations. This is the most significant aspect of social life, yet an aspect that is given relatively little attention as the social studies are usually taught. This defect naturally follows from the fact that the teachers of these subjects are prepared in college and university classes in Political Science, Economics, and Sociology where the general concern is with analysis of facts and discovery of laws descriptive of how things go on in political, social, and economic life rather than with standards of moral judgment and ideals to be attained. This latter point of view and method is usually left to classes in philosophy.

Since physicists and chemists exclude questions of moral values from their technical studies, economists and sociologists may do likewise and justify themselves as devotees of scientific method. The educational administrator is, however, concerned primarily with the objectives of education and the means of realizing these objectives. This calls for modifications of the purely scientific procedure to meet high school needs, either by introducing the ethical point of view into all of the social studies or by introducing a course in social ethics,

It may be assumed that high school graduates will be among those that contribute to social progress; or that they will, at least, be intelligent citizens—able at critical times to help form the collective will in agreement with sound ethical principles. They must, of course, know the facts of social-civic-economic life, but no important advance was ever made on the basis of knowledge of facts alone. The passage of constitutional amendments, the enactment of new laws, and the determination of administrative policies commonly involve exercise of the moral judgment—decision as to what ought to be. It is the same kind of judgment that is called for in solving the complex problems of professional, business, and industrial life. A growing recognition of this fact is attested by the multitude of codes of vocational ethics that have been produced in very recent years; also by the attention that is being given to education for character. It is self-evident that science in itself may be more harmful than beneficial to mankind; unless used in conformity with moral standards it may be a means of social suicide instead of social progress. The same is true of the social studies with the ethical element omitted. It is, of course, not wholly omitted from recent high school textbooks, but in most of them it has but a very subordinate place, whereas it must be evident to any thoughtful student of education that ethical concepts should have a dominating place in at least one course open to all, if not required of all. This course may well cover much the same ground as those now offered under the titles, "Contemporary Problems," "American Problems," "Problems of Democracy," etc. The problems should, however, be selected because they involve the most fundamental principles of social ethics—principles that have far wider significance than any mere description of social facts.

It is much more important for youth to know the ethical principles that justify laws restricting the use of private property than it is to know merely that these restrictions exist. It surely is better that youth should stand firmly for world peace with justice to all than that they be scared into an attitude of conciliation by description of the horrors of modern warfare. If it be said in reply that development of the moral judgment is incidental to all experience and, therefore, unnecessary as the primary objective of any course, the answer is that this phase of the social inheritance like other phases does not pass auto-

matically from one generation to the next. Transmission of the most fundamental aspects of the social inheritance is one of the primary purposes of courses of study. There is even less reason for omitting to teach the highest ethical concepts and to train in exercise of the moral judgment than there would be to omit teaching the vernacular. That will certainly be acquired in some degree and in some fashion; indeed, often a bad fashion, but not worse than the types of moral and immoral judgment only too commonly acquired by our haphazard methods of moral education.

Historical Dramatizations in the Grades

STUDENT PROJECTS IN THE THOMAS G. MORTON PUBLIC SCHOOL, PHILADELPHIA

ROBERT C. STRING, PRINCIPAL

HORATIUS AT THE BRIDGE

A play in two scenes, written by Helen Singley,
6A Grade, Morton Elementary School, Philadelphia

Persons in the Play

Horatius

Citizens

Announcer

SCENE I. ON A STREET NEAR THE TIBER

ANNOUNCER: Men of Rome discussing the very close approach of the Etruscans.

1ST CITIZEN: "What shall we do? The Etruscans are stronger than we."

2D C.: "I wonder which way they will come."

3D C.: "We have not many soldiers. They will make us slaves."

4TH C.: "Why not ask Horatius to help us?"

5TH C.: "Let Horatius think of something to do."

3D C.: "What do you think we could do to keep back the Etruscan Army, Horatius?"

HORATIUS: "Let us place guards at every road that leads to Rome. I will guard the bridge if two men will volunteer to help me."

MANY C.: "I will!" "I will!" "Let me help you, Horatius!" "I will help you!"

HORATIUS: "I will take you two men to help me."

3D C.: "I think I see the Etruscans. They will march over the bridge."

SCENE II. AT THE BRIDGE OVER THE TIBER

ANNOUNCER: Horatius and his companions have reached the bridge. While they fight the Etruscans, the Romans are cutting down the supports of the bridge.

HORATIUS: "You stand over here, and you over there, and I will stand here and we will face the Etruscans. Now! Have your spears ready!"

1ST COMPANION: "Yes! We have our spears ready to throw. I know Horatius will save Rome!"

2D COMP.: "See the chips fly."

1ST COMP.: "Hear the axes ring."

2D COMP.: "Horatius, I feel the bridge shaking and if the bridge falls we will drown."

1ST COMP.: "Yes, we will drown because we have our heavy armor on,"

HORATIUS: "I think you two men better run back and I will keep the enemy at bay."

1ST COMP.: "All right, we will go back."

(*Horatius is now alone on the bridge. Citizens are discussing the incident.*)

1ST C.: "I hear the Etruscans talking to Horatius."

2D C.: "They are asking him to surrender."

2D C.: "The bridge is falling. Horatius has thrown himself into the Tiber River."

1ST C.: "He has his heavy armor on! He will drown!"

5TH C.: "I see a spear flying in the air."

1ST C.: "I wonder if it hit Horatius."

2D C.: "I see Horatius' head above the water."

(*Horatius has reached land.*)

2D C.: "Why, Horatius, we thought you would drown and we would never see you again."

HORATIUS: "I would not surrender and let the Etruscans take Rome."

1ST C.: "Horatius, you are hurt; they have put your eye out."

HORATIUS: "I do not care as long as I have saved Rome."

ROMAN CITIZENS: "Three Cheers for Horatius—Hurrah! Hurrah! Hurrah!"

ELI WHITNEY

A play in three scenes, by Clifford Hepler,
5B Grade, Morton Elementary School, Philadelphia

Persons in the Play

Eli Whitney

Mrs. Greene

Planters

Announcer

SCENE I. A GROUP OF PLANTERS VISITING MRS. GREENE MEET ELI WHITNEY

ANNOUNCER: The following conversation takes place at Mrs. Greene's home.

1ST PLANTER: "Isn't it lovely weather outside?"

3D P.: "Couldn't be better, I think."

2D P.: "Just right for the cotton, too."

4TH P.: "Isn't it a shame we cannot clean the

cotton more quickly? A slave only cleans a little over a pound in one day, that hardly pays for his meals."

2D P.: "Look how rich the South would be if only someone would invent a machine that would separate the seeds from the fiber more quickly."

Mrs. GREENE: "I have a gentleman boarding at my house who is very handy with tools, perhaps he could make such a machine."

4TH P.: "Is he here in the house, now?"

Mrs. G.: "Yes, he is in his room. Wait and I will call him."

(She fetches Eli Whitney.)

Mrs. G.: "Gentlemen, this is Mr. Whitney."

PLANTERS: "We are very glad to make your acquaintance, Mr. Whitney."

1ST P.: "We have just been talking about a machine that would separate the seeds from the fiber more quickly. Do you think you could make it?"

ELI WHITNEY: "I cannot promise you that, but I can, at least, try."

SCENE II. ELI WHITNEY'S WORK SHOP

ANNOUNCER: Whitney is working at his workbench trying to solve the problem. He talks aloud to himself as he works.

E. W.: "Here is some wire, but it is too thick. I will have to heat it and try to hammer it out fine enough. Now, I must have nails, a hammer, a chisel, and a saw. My tools are very crude, but I will have to do the best I can with these. I wonder where Mrs. Greene put that wire grating she was using yesterday? Oh, here it is. This board must be sawed until it is the right length."

(Whitney works on his machine.)

"Now, when the planters come again, I will show it to them."

SCENE III. SAME AS SCENE I. WHITNEY SHOWS HIS MACHINE TO THE PLANTERS

ANNOUNCER: Another interview with the Planters.

E. W.: "Good morning, gentlemen, glad to see you once more."

PLANTERS: "Good morning, Mr. Whitney."

E. W.: "I have finished the model machine and I will show you how it works."

2D P.: "Have you finished so soon? My, you are a quick worker!"

E. W.: "Now, see, on this model there is a wire grating. I put the cotton into the machine and then turn this handle. The handle turns the cylinder with the teeth on it, so that it pulls the cotton through the grating, but leaves behind the seeds which are too large to go through. There is only one thing that is wrong and that is when the fiber comes through it clogs, and the rest of the cotton cannot come through while it is there."

Mrs. G.: "Couldn't you put a brush on the machine so that when it gets clogged it will brush it away?"

E. W.: "Thanks for the idea, I'll try that."

Mrs. G.: "I am very glad to be able to help you."

4TH P.: "We thank you so much, Mr. Whitney, for helping us out."

E. W.: "I am glad I have been able to help you, gentlemen."

4TH P.: "You have, indeed, helped us a great deal and we appreciate what you have done."

2D P.: "We surely do."

E. W.: "Well, if you ever need anything done with tools just stop in and I will try to help you."

(Whitney withdraws and Planters continue the conversation.)

1ST P.: "I think I will introduce that machine on my plantation next month."

2D P.: "Splendid idea, isn't it?"

3D P.: "This machine will enable us to grow more cotton and thus bring in more money."

4TH P.: "It will make us have more slaves, too."

1ST P.: "I am so glad Mrs. Greene introduced us to Mr. Whitney. Aren't you?"

ALL: "Indeed, we are."

ROBERT MORRIS

A play in five scenes, written by Phyllis Coggin, 5B Grade, Morton Elementary School, Philadelphia

A play telling the way in which Robert Morris helped the Colonies during the Revolutionary War

Persons in Play

General Washington

General Putnam

Robert Morris

James Lukens

Tom Brown

Thomas Burke

Jack Jones

Bill Jackson

} Soldiers

Lois

John

Friend

} Friends (or Quakers)

SCENE I. IN CAMP

ANNOUNCER: Five Revolutionary soldiers talking. They are very discontented.

LUKENS: "I'm tired of this. If we can't get pay, I'm going home."

BURKE: "I haven't had a good meal since we came here."

JONES: "I haven't heard the jingling of money for ages, it seems."

JACKSON: "My clothes are almost in rags. I'm almost frozen to death and so weak I can hardly walk."

BROWN: "I can't see how it is possible to carry on this war when Congress has no more money. She can't pay us nor buy more ammunition."

LUKENS: "I know a good plan. Tomorrow we will go to General Washington. Tell him we want our pay or else we'll give up as our enlistments are ended. If we can't get money, then we will go home to our poor families."

BURKE: "Yes, they need food and money just as much as we do."

SCENE II. WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS

A conversation between General Washington and General Putnam.

GEN. WASHINGTON: "The time has come when we will have to look for money to pay our soldiers."

GEN. PUTNAM: "I suppose they will not re-enlist unless they are paid."

GEN. WASH.: "No, they cannot, poor fellows. They are brave and faithful, but they are too ragged and hungry to make strong soldiers. Their families are suffering, too. Their poor wives and children, the old mothers and fathers at home are crying for bread. The men want us to send them money."

GEN. PUT.: "But Congress has printed wagon-loads of money for them. What is the matter with the Continental Currency?"

GEN. WASH.: "Alas! it isn't worth a 'continental.'"

GEN. PUT.: "How is that?"

GEN. WASH.: "Because it hasn't any gold or silver to back it."

GEN. PUT.: "But we must have money to pay the soldiers. How will we get it?"

GEN. WASH.: "I have a plan. I will write to my good friend, Robert Morris, who is a merchant and banker in Philadelphia." *(He takes a quill pen and a sheet of paper and sits down to write.)*

SCENE III. ROBERT MORRIS' STUDY

ANNOUNCER: Two days later Robert Morris receives the letter from General Washington.

(Robert Morris, sitting at a table, reading his letter aloud.)

"DECEMBER, 1776.

"FRIEND ROBERT MORRIS:

"The time for which many of my men had enlisted will be out in a few days, and I need money to get them to re-enlist. It seems as if we are beyond all hopes of winning, because the men are discouraged. Their feet are on the ground and their clothes are all ragged. I promised that I would give them extra money if they would stay, but I haven't been able to get money to pay them. I need \$50,000 to pay the soldiers. Knowing that you are a friend of Liberty, I write to ask you, in our time of need, if you will help us?"

"I remain, sir, your most humble and obedient servant,

"GEORGE WASHINGTON."

(After reading the letter, Robert Morris picks up his hat and says as he starts to leave the room.)

"Friend, I will do my best for thee and for Liberty."

SCENE IV. A ROOM IN A HOUSE IN PHILADELPHIA

ANNOUNCER: Robert Morris visits his friends to obtain money for the army.

(Robert Morris knocks at the door. A Quaker, a woman, opens it.)

R. M.: "Here is a letter from George Washington, Friend Lois." *(He hands her the letter.)* "He needs money to pay the soldiers."

LOIS: "Come in, Friend Robert."

R. M.: "Thank you." *(Robert is in and Lois goes to another door and calls.)*

LOIS: "John!"

JOHN *(John comes into the room)*: "Good morning, Friend Robert. Wilt thou be seated?"

R. M.: "Thank you. I have come to thee for help."

LOIS: "See, John, here is a letter from George Washington." *(They sit down opposite Robert and read the letter. After reading the letter, John says):*

JOHN: "The Lord hath been good to me and I will be glad to help in this way. I don't believe in fighting or wars, but if this money will help the poor soldiers' families, it will be as the Lord wishes. Will a thousand dollars help?"

R. M.: "Yes, Friend John, I am sure it will help."

(Robert unrolls a long paper with many names on it and handing it to John says): "Please sign here."

LOIS *(Lois leans over and reads the names as he signs)*: "Thou hast many names, Robert."

R. M.: "Yes, I knew I could depend on our good friends." "George Washington must not be disappointed in us." *(As he goes to the door, John and Lois follow him.)* "Good-bye, friends, I must hurry, for I want to collect as much as possible today."

LOIS: "Good-bye, Friend Robert."

JOHN: "Good-bye and may God be with thee." *(Robert goes out.)*

(He meets a Friend along the street.)

FRIEND: "Good morning, Friend Morris. What is the news today?"

R. M.: "Washington needs money and I beg thy help."

FRIEND: "I'm not surprised, because the treasury is empty, but if I give thee money, Morris, what is my security?"

R. M.: "My word and my honor."

FRIEND: "Thou shalt have the money."

SCENE V. IN CAMP, SAME AS SCENE I

ANNOUNCER: Five Revolutionary soldiers talking. They are now much more contented. Soldiers sit around the fire.

LUKENS: "Did you get your pay, Jack?"

JONES: "Yes, I am going to send most of it to my wife. How glad she will be to get new shoes and clothes for the children."

BURKE: "I got mine earlier, because I had to take a note to the paymaster and I have already sent mine home."

BROWN: "I don't feel hungry any more."

JACKSON: "Nor I."

LUKENS: "Nor I. I'm going to fight for Liberty."

JONES: "My feet feel good, because they have new shoes. Now, I can push on and run the Red Coats clear out of our country." *(He gets up and shakes his feet as though he were dancing.)* *(Jones and Jackson get up and take Thomas's hands and they dance around together in a circle, shouting):* "Hurrah, hurrah, hurrah, hurrah for our pay! Hurrah for new shoes! Hurrah for George Washington!"

LUKENS: "And how about Robert Morris?"

ALL TOGETHER: "Hurrah for Robert Morris of Philadelphia. Hurrah, hurrah, hurrah!"

The End.

Why Study History?

A Pupil Test Upon Objectives

BY HAROLD BENJAMIN, PRINCIPAL OF THE UNIVERSITY OF OREGON HIGH SCHOOL

History holds an important place in the curriculum of the secondary school. Those of us who teach history are usually ready to justify that place by telling in what way the subject is of value. In this connection it is interesting to learn what worth attaches to the study of history in minds of high school pupils.

The following "test" was recently given to 46 pupils in the first and fourth year history classes of a six-year high school:

History is a valuable subject because:

1. Educated people must know how to talk about historical events.
2. Learning about wars makes us willing to fight for our country.
3. History helps us to solve social and political problems in an intelligent manner.
4. A knowledge of history makes it easier for us to earn a living.
5. If we learn to like history we can spend our spare time reading historical works instead of fiction and romance.
6. One needs history to enter the university.
7. History trains our minds because it is hard to learn.
8. History makes us good because it shows how wicked people come to bad ends.

The student was instructed to select those reasons which he considered of some value and to mark the most important reason, A; the next in importance, B; and so on. Any reason which he considered valueless should not be marked.

Twenty-four pupils believed that history is of greatest value in helping us to solve social and political problems intelligently. Nine answers assigned first place to history's work in furnishing educated people with conversational material. The remaining pupils scattered their first choices as indicated in Table 1:

	Table 1	No. A's
History helps us to solve social and political problems in an intelligent manner.....		24
Educated people must know how to talk about historical events.....		9
If we learn to like history we can spend our spare time reading historical works instead of fiction and romance.....		4
One needs history to enter the university.....		3
Learning about wars makes us willing to fight for our country.....		2
History trains our minds because it is hard to learn		2
History makes us good because it shows how wicked people come to bad ends.....		1

Ten pupils believed that only one reason of the ten given was of any value. Seven of this group affirmed that the one reason of worth was that concerned with the solution of social and political problems.

Thirty-six pupils had second choices. The distribution of reasons marked "B" is shown in Table 2:

	Table 2	No. B's
History helps us to solve social and political problems in an intelligent manner.....		8
If we learn to like history we can spend our time reading historical works instead of fiction and romance.....		7
One needs history to enter the university.....		6
Educated people must know how to talk about historical events.....		5
History trains our minds because it is hard to learn		5
Learning about wars makes us willing to fight for our country.....		4
A knowledge of history makes it easier for us to earn a living.....		1

Table 3 shows the distribution of all marks given the eight reasons:

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
1	9	5	4	4		2		
2	2	4	3	3	3			
3	24	8	3	2				
4	1	1	2		4	2	2	
5	4	7	5	3	2	1	1	1
6	3	6	6	3	1		2	1
7	2	5	3	1		3		2
8	1			1	1		2	3

Of the 46 pupils answering this test, 26 were first year students (seventh grade), and 20 were fourth year students (tenth grade). Table 4 shows the distribution of reasons marked "A" by each of these groups:

	Table 4	1st year	4th year
History helps us to solve social and political problems in an intelligent manner		42%	65%
Educated people must know how to talk about historical events.....		23%	15%
Learning about wars makes us willing to fight for our country.....		7%	0%
If we learn to like history we can spend our spare time reading historical works instead of fiction and romance.....		7%	10%
One needs history to enter the university		7%	5%
Scattered among remaining reasons..		14%	5%

If any conclusion can properly be drawn from an investigation of so small a number of cases it might well be a suggestion that pupils should receive more definite instruction concerning the aims of the subject studied.

In speaking of President Wilson in an article on "The Long End of a Cable" (January *Century*), James Kerney offers this side-light on his character: "Europe took on this confident idealist, and while the common people cheered and bowed and worshiped, the seasoned political warriors delayed and juggled and wore him out....Wilson personally wearied of the royal entertaining, but he never found a way to get around the schemes devised by clever, old world rulers to block his peace plans. They were no altruists: they were plainly out for keeping the balance of power that had produced the war."

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR HARRY J. CARMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Mr. Secretary Walsingham and the Policy of Queen Elizabeth. By Conyers Read. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1925. (Clarendon Press, Oxford.) In three volumes, xi, 443, 433, 505 pp. \$20.00.

It is almost superfluous to say that with these three volumes Dr. Read has permanently put all serious students of Tudor history in his debt. For lack of evidence he has not written a personal biography of the "very Macchiavelli," but his description of this work as "something more than a biography of Walsingham and something less than a history of Elizabethan policy," in the second regard, particularly, is a very modest one. The more brilliant, but less meticulous, work of Seeley in "The Growth of British Policy" is now very much supplemented and considerably superseded by a comprehensive discussion of what surely must be all the original materials available for an appraisal of English foreign policy between 1570 and 1590. In addition, all the relevant secondary works on the subject, even the most recent, have been considered and are often patiently discussed—no easy task of adjustment when one considers the bulk of these volumes and the years spent in their compilation. Finally, in the bibliography and in almost every other footnote, the most judicious critical attitude is maintained, and an examination of both will save any student of Elizabethan history from those treacherous pitfalls, the use of questionable sources, the neglect of little-known materials, and too great confidence in printed calendars and collections. In this connection it might be noted that Dr. Read considers the contemporary chronicles of Stow and Camden worthy of "very serious consideration."

The Stracheyan impressionism is rigorously excluded, but now a Strachey might sum up Walsingham for us with a sure touch. Unquestionably, this book will join the ranks of "reference" volumes because of its detailed treatment, but it will be readily usable as such because of its arrangement and its index. There is almost no duplication in spite of topical treatment of apparently inseparable tangles of policy. At times the very labor of analysis, arduous in dealing with a queen who found it hard to make up her mind, keep it made up or loosen her purse-strings, and with a council which always contained two factions and sometimes more, makes reading a labor as well, but there are appropriately spaced summaries which carry one naturally to the assured chapter conclusions.

It is impossible to review the material of the book in short space and there can be few men sufficiently acquainted with the original sources to criticize more than special fields within its scope. From the reading of it one gets a convincing picture of the Puritan statesman who believed implicitly that England owed it to God and her own safety to form a Protestant league, and who labored for eighteen years with a queen who heaped reproaches on him or hurled her slipper at his head, and with a council so evenly divided that his plans moved snail-like to their conclusion, war with Spain and open assistance to Dutch and Huguenot rebels. Yet there is little hero-worship and vices are arrayed as well as virtues, so that no magical genius in Elizabeth, Burghley, or Walsingham receives the credit for the providential good fortune which so adequately supplemented the bravery and the poltroonery, the vigor and the indecision, the generous impulse and the nigardliness of the reign of the last Tudor. It is difficult to single out for distinction any chapters of the work, but to the reviewer those dealing with France up to the massacre of St. Bartholomew's, with the second Alençon courtship, with the Babington plot, and with the coming of the Armada, seemed most noteworthy, although this is probably because of the relatively greater, but inevitable, complexity of the treatment of Dutch and Scottish affairs. It is refreshing to find an historian welcoming a novelist's por-

trait of Mary Stuart, and a great assistance to read convincing speculation on the workings of the minds of those two amazing women, Catherine de Médici and Elizabeth Tudor. Students will be grateful for the careful discussion of those interminable controversies on Elizabeth's religious policy, Walsingham's reputation as a fabricator of plots, his alleged persecution of Mary Stuart and engineering of her death, and the relation between his private convictions and his official action. Finally, there emerge more clearly than before the changing—not static—relations between Elizabeth, Burghley, Leicester, and Walsingham, and the fact that the last did as much as any of his contemporaries (except perhaps Hawkins) to defeat the Armada.

This work compels the wish that Dr. Read will use his unique acquaintance with the materials for Elizabethan history to assure us of definitive treatment of Burghley and Leicester, neither of whom has ever been adequately portrayed. Either task on the scale of the work under review would be awe-inspiring, but the latter could be made a central stalk on which the other accounts could be grafted.

BARTLET BREBNER.

Columbia University.

A Knight's Life in the Days of Chivalry. By W. C. Meller. New York: Greenberg, Publisher, Inc., 1924. XV, 300 pp.

With much industry the author of this work has brought together a mass of material, culled chiefly from courtly literature and archaeological remains, which offers a wealth of illustration for the illuminating of nearly every aspect of the life of the privileged aristocracy of western Europe in the Middle Ages. He traces from childhood to maturity the life of the knight, revealing his activity in war and in mimic war, on the crusade, in the chase, in the castle, in the courts of love.

Were the reader looking for a pleasant hour of semi-popular reading, he would probably not tarry long with this volume. It is a striking example of the absence of all art in the composition of an historical work. And this is all the more regrettable since the subject lends itself to dramatic and interesting presentation. The book presents the materials from which a history of chivalry might be constructed rather than a clearly thought out, compact and consistent study. Many pages seem to be composed of rough notes thrown together in rather haphazard fashion. The author tells us in the preface that he is going to devote himself "to the age when Chivalry was in flower; more especially that period of it when feudal fetters, becoming loosened, a free and more individual Chivalry became paramount...." Elsewhere he says that Chivalry dawned in the late tenth century, blazed forth with vigor during the crusades and found its most brilliant period during the wars between France and England (p. 286). The field of his study would then be from the twelfth to the early fifteenth century. But almost immediately the reader is confused by being told that signs of decadence were fully visible from the twelfth century onward. All sense of chronology is frequently lost sight of. On page 67 an incident drawn from the late fourteenth or early fifteenth century appears to illustrate the early and secular period of chivalry, before knighthood has been taken under the wing of the Church and been endued with a religious atmosphere and significance; while a poem from the middle twelfth century seems to illustrate its decadence (pp. 289-290). We are told that knighthood had a beginning, a middle, and an end; in other words, that there was definite progression. But illustrations for a given point may be gathered from sources separated by centuries in point of time, and throughout the volume they

are as widely scattered as from the eighth to the eighteenth century. Such leaps are baffling to the reader who is looking for an orderly sequence of ideas and events and detract much from the usefulness of the work.

The volume is marred by carelessness both in writing and in proofreading. Nearly every page contains errors, either of fact, of typography, or of diction; on many pages all three occur. To choose a few from an almost endless list, on page 217 is given a table of dates when the various crusading orders were founded. This table is contradicted on pages 220 and 224. On page 5 we are told of a Charles II of France in 1294 and on page 199 we learn that Edward I of England was married in 1234. Sergeantry is regularly written for sergeancy (cf. esp. p. 9); siezweaine appears for suzerain (p. 210); international comity finds approval in the hybrid "cuir-boilée" (p. 76); and a new religion seems to be foreshadowed in the "epitaphs of God" (p. 49). In the translation from old French there are curious slips. There may be some good reason known to the author for translating *plates aures* as "steel plates" (p. 21), but by what rule may *roncins* be rendered "houses" (p. 25) or the medieval *frenieres* find themselves metamorphosed into "farmers" (p. 8)? Paragraphs and whole chapters lack unity, sentences fail to parse (by any rule known to the reviewer), punctuation is scattered about in a curiously tolerant fashion. Chapter III carries the title *Armour*, but under that caption the author is led from armour to dancing, from dancing to jongleurs, from jongleurs to feasting, from feasting to vows of knights. The last half of the chapter has wandered far afield from the discussion of medieval armour. The same is true of Chapter I, where, under "Origins of Chivalry," nearly three-fourths of the space is devoted to tracing the career of the future knight from the cradle to his knighting. And it is questionable whether even the author himself could make much sense out of the following: "After this the Vigil began, of prayer, in some church and watching his armour, during the night preceding his knighting" (p. 21); or of this: "As the vows, unfulfilled in lifetime, to go on a pilgrimage or to take the Cross were afterwards performed by deputy, the efficacy of the soul passed away, and was supposed to be benefited and freed" (p. 269).

The list need not be extended further. Such criticism is justified only when the errors are so numerous and of such character as to detract greatly from the value of the work. In the opinion of the reviewer this is the case in the book under review. Whatever one may think of the author's major generalizations—and some of them are at least open to question, as when the crusades are represented as having effected a "complete revolution in the manners and customs of the western nations" (p. 212)—there can be no question that he has, with much labor, brought together an important body of material. The book is published in relatively expensive form. As the author states in his preface, there was room for a scholarly treatment of the subject, one that would correct some of the enthusiasms and overstatements of former discussions. But the very nature of the subject requires that art be employed in its presentation. Art is lacking. It is unfortunate that both the author and the publisher should have allowed such slipshod workmanship in a book that should have appealed to a wide and diversified group of readers.

AUSTIN P. EVANS.

Columbia University.

A Short History of the American People, 1492-1860. By Robert Granville Caldwell, Ph.D., Professor of American History in the Rice Institute. New York and London: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1925. Pp. xix, 520.

In view of the title of this scholarly volume one might have expected a greater deviation from the traditional political narrative of the development of the United States. Here and there the reader gets an intimate glimpse of the normal life of the American people, or a revealing flash of human emotion, but the emphasis remains upon "affairs of state." Two chapters, one dealing with Colonial

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Life and Institutions and the other with American Society About 1850, contain excellent portrayals of conditions at the close of the eighteenth and the middle of the nineteenth century. Elsewhere in the volume social and economic forces are treated, not separately, but in connection with factors of political and constitutional growth. Familiarity with the best sources and secondary works is apparent in every chapter.

In his interpretations the author is neither an economic determinist nor a firm believer in the power of ideals. His discussion of the causes of the American Revolution, though it contains a careful appraisal of the economic conflict within the empire and an intelligent statement of the constitutional arguments, is heavily freighted with references to human feelings and emotions. Professor Caldwell seems to be sure that in the rising quarrel between the colonies and the mother-country calculations of profit and loss were less responsible for the final event than outbursts of passion and prejudice. Likewise, the sections which describe the formation and ratification of the Constitution give recognition to the economic implications of the movement for a strong central government, but subordinate these factors to the emotional elements in the propaganda for national unity. As might be expected, the author finds material to his liking when he turns to analyze frontier conditions and influences, or when he describes the rise of the democratic spirit in political affairs. Andrew Jackson, contemptuous of the subtleties of the law, but conversant with the subtleties of human nature, emerges as the heroic leader of the people's bid for power.

There are two well organized and well written chapters on the achievements of the "manifest destiny" men in the twenty years prior to 1850. Perhaps the author's local interest is responsible for the extensive account of the annexation of Texas and the causes of the Mexican War, but the disproportionate length is justified by the fine impartiality of the treatment and the dramatic quality of the style. It is one of the "high spots" of the volume. Not so much can be said, however, for the discussion of the slavery controversy. A topical arrangement of the material scattered through several chapters would have given the reader a much clearer idea of the conflict of interests between the free and slave States. "The election of 1860," says Professor Caldwell, "was essentially a pair of elections. In the terms of European politics it was between a radical and a conservative in each section. The fact that the radical won in each section and that the northern section was the larger determined the result." He might well have added that while Abraham Lincoln received a majority of the popular vote in the free States, John C. Breckinridge failed to receive the popular endorsement of the slave States.

A second volume of this work, carrying the narrative from the Civil War to the Coolidge Administration, is in preparation. If it reveals the same thorough scholarship, careful organization and interesting style, it will be a notable addition to the literature of recent American history.

JOHN A. KROUT.

Columbia University.

Great Britain and the American Civil War. By Ephraim Douglass Adams. Longmans, Green and Company, New York and London, 1925. Vol. I, xi, 307 pp.; Vol. II, 340 pp. \$10.00.

"Did Great Britain, in spite of her long years of championship of personal freedom and of leadership in the cause of anti-slavery, seize upon the opportunity offered in the disruption of the American Union, and forgetting humanitarian idealisms, react only to selfish motives of commercial advantage and national power? In brief, how is the American Civil War to be depicted by historians of Great Britain, recording her attitude and action in both foreign and domestic policy, and revealing the inspirations of her people?" It was to answer these questions that the work under review was undertaken. But Professor Adams has done more. In the first place, he has successfully shown

that the great crisis in America was almost equally a crisis in the domestic history of Great Britain, and that as such it had a very distinct bearing on British policy toward America. Secondly, he has given an admirable summary of Anglo-American relations prior to the Civil War on the theory that the conditions preceding that conflict also had a direct and powerful influence in shaping British policy and opinion when the crisis arose.

From beginning to end the work is an embodiment of painstaking scholarship. Inasmuch as the author collaborated for some time in the preparation of what is as yet an unpublished biography of Charles Francis Adams, American Minister to Great Britain during the Civil War, he has had access to a mass of documentary material hitherto unavailable. In addition to the diplomatic correspondence, the personal papers of members of the British Cabinet, such as Lord John Russell, Lord Palmerston, and Gladstone, have been meticulously examined. Professor Adams has also delved into the personal papers of Lord Lyons, the British Minister to America, and into the private correspondence of James Mason, Confederate envoy to Great Britain. The newspapers and periodicals of the time have in like manner been explored. In a word, apparently no stone has been left unturned in the effort to get all the facts, and these have been used in judicious fashion.

From the evidence it appears that Britain in 1861 had little exact knowledge about the causes of the war or about the leaders North and South. The landed and commercial aristocracy who controlled the government were anti-democratic and openly sympathetic toward the South. To them the southern planter was a gentleman who represented the best traditions of Old World gentility. Even more important, he produced the bulk of the cotton for the two thousand-odd mills of Lancashire and was an ardent proponent of free trade. Moreover, the privileged classes had long watched with growing concern the development of American power and the influence of American political ideas on the unenfranchised masses of the British public. For them the break-up of the Union was an occasion for rejoicing, for it afforded what seemed to them certain proof that a democracy was unable to govern itself when faced by a crisis. They also hoped that the disruption of the powerful western democracy would put a quietus on the growing demands of the masses for the ballot and for parliamentary representation. Under these circumstances it was natural that the ruling classes should favor the Confederacy and that during the four years' struggle it should exert constant pressure on the Cabinet in its behalf.

Despite this pressure and despite the fact that the British Ministry regarded Seward as a wily, clever politician and on the whole a dangerous man, the Palmerston-Russell Cabinet, the records show, did not overstep itself. During the first year of the war British policy was to all intents and purposes the policy of Lord John Russell, and although he issued a Proclamation of Neutrality which recognized the South as a belligerent, he acted quite within the bounds of customary usage. That the government at times seemed to lean toward the South, the author does not deny, but he proves pretty conclusively that it was not because of "unfriendly animus" toward the North. In fact, he practically agrees with the view expressed at the time by Russell and his colleagues, that up to the Trent affair the British government pursued a policy of strict and upright neutrality and that it was "fixed in the determination not to permit Union controversies or economic advantage" to alter its policy.

While the Trent affair and the northern blockade, each of which caused great excitement in both Britain and the United States, are discussed at considerable length, not much is added in the way of major premise that was not already known. The documents do, however, furnish a richness of detail and the author's interpretative statement concerning the Trent episode (Vol. I, p. 242) is an excellent summary of its effect on both official and unofficial Britain. On the other hand, the building in British ports

of Confederate war vessels and the subsequent controversy over the *Alabama* are not reviewed in detail. In this connection the author frankly states that the intention of the British government is of greater importance than the correctness of its action, and in his belief the documentary evidence shows pretty conclusively that whatever mistakes the Cabinet made were due to laxness and bungling rather than to any deep-seated effort to aid the South.

The various proposals for mediation are treated at length inasmuch as Professor Adams is of the opinion that they represent Great Britain's nearest approach to the danger of becoming involved in the American conflict (Vol. II, p. 34). Had there been unanimity in the Cabinet and had it been enthusiastically supported by public opinion, it is very probable that Lord Russell's mediation plan of 1862 would have been adopted and that war would have ensued between England and the North. But both of these prerequisites were lacking. Thanks to the indefatigable work of John Bright and William E. Forster, democratic and unenfranchised England squarely opposed itself to intervention; and this, together with the issuance of the Emancipation Proclamation of 1863, summarily ended the danger of governmental intervention. The author also shows that despite this fact prominent Britishers did not lose faith in the South, and that up to as late as midsummer of 1864 they thought the Confederacy unconquerable. In this connection the Southern Independence Association is treated exhaustively.

In a footnote (Vol. II, pp. 13-14) the author takes issue with the argument advanced by Professor Schmidt and others that Great Britain's dependence on northern wheat operated as a contributing influence in keeping the British government officially neutral. While cotton, he says, among other things, "was frequently a subject of governmental concern in memoranda and in private notes between members of the Cabinet, I have failed to find one single case of the mention of wheat." Whether this is conclusive evidence or not is, in the opinion of the reviewer, an open question. Every student of Anglo-American relations should have access to these volumes, for they throw new light on what has long been a highly controversial subject.—C.

The Invention of Printing in China and Its Spread Westward. By Thomas Francis Carter. Columbia University Press, New York, 1925. 179 pp. \$7.50.

In his first—and most unfortunately his last—major work in book writing, the late Professor Carter has presented with fitting felicity of phrase and clarifying comprehensiveness the results of a patient and scholarly research into the invention of printing in China, and the early manufacture there of its ally—paper, tracing the probable spread westward of both inventions. But his work, except for two short pamphlet articles in French and German, the first western history of early Chinese printing, is not a panegyric of Chinese civilization at the expense of the West. Speaking specifically of Gutenberg, revered father of typography in Europe, Professor Carter observes: "It is possible now to draw attention to certain persons who may be regarded as in a sense the ancestors not of Gutenberg the man, but Gutenberg the inventor of printing. If this pedigree is confined to that branch of the printer's art which bears evidence of leading back to China, the purpose of such emphasis is not to minimize the European line of descent—it is merely to leave this line to those who have specialized in that direction."

It is significant of Professor Carter's admirable method that he turns first to the undoubted discovery so early as 105 B. C. by the Chinese of the art of making true rag paper, and that he has not neglected to develop Chinese progress in this art as well as its unquestioned thousand-year journey to the West. Turning next to printing, Professor Carter similarly treats with an admirable sense of perspective and clarity the earliest conceivable forerunners of printing in China—the use of seals as stamps—both by the government for verification of documents and by the Buddhists and Taoists for duplication and the making of simple charms.

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For the Chinese, with their ideographic characters, Professor Carter makes it plain that the invention of printing was the invention of lithography—block printing, an invention which clearly comes into prominent use in the eastern empire as early as 953 A. D., five centuries before Gutenberg. But the Chinese were not without ideas as to the possible utility of single character type, and in this direction their inventive genius also extended itself, but not with practical results of importance until 1400 A. D., and then in Korea.

In Professor Carter's opinion the direct debt of Europe to China for paper is unmistakable, the direct debt for printing uncertain; and it is a further merit of Professor Carter's volume that it traces with convincing clarity the whole range of intercourse between the West and the East over the entire period since the manufacture of true rag paper began in China, a brief hundred years after the commencement of the Christian era.

Frankly admitting that the evidence is not all in for the final presentation of this subject, Professor Carter, nevertheless, presents the considerable body of information which he has gathered in a confidence-inspiring manner, and it is altogether reasonable to say that his contribution will remain for many years a major work of the first rank.

In addition to an appendix the book contains thirty-eight plates, a chart, and a map.

WILBUR L. WILLIAMS.

Columbia University.

The Student's History of Ireland. By Stephen Gwynn. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1925. 322 pp.

Those who had read Mr. Gwynn's shrewd and timely comment on Irish affairs in European and American periodicals, particularly after 1916, welcomed his "History of Ireland" which appeared in 1923. The present volume is an almost complete rewriting of it in less than one-half of the space and is designed to be an inexpensive volume which will enable Irish people, North and South, to acquire a knowledge of their history, and which the author hopes will thereby diminish sectional animosity. It is a crowded volume and shows not a few effects of its abbreviation, but it is remarkable for its judicial treatment of a controversial story. This is particularly noticeable in the refusal to allow criticism to be divorced from standards contemporary with event, and in the sketchy, but suggestive, relation of Irish to English history. Another attractive feature is the attention paid to the middle nation, "Irish to the English, but English to the Irish," and to the character of Ulster and its peculiar problems and dues. This book does not carry credentials in footnotes and is admittedly a popular account, but it should be a good introduction to Irish history in small compass. For some reason the small maps are not listed and those who find Irish geography (and nomenclature generally) difficult to remember would be grateful if the large map at the back of the book were arranged to face the front of the book when unfolded.

BARTLETT BREBNER.

Columbia University.

Book Notes

The teacher of European history should welcome as admirable supplementary reading for students of high school age Mrs. Louise Creighton's *Heroes of French History*, edited with explanatory notes by John C. Allen (Longmans, Green and Co., London, 1925, 152 pp., \$0.90). The volume, which is attractively illustrated by Henry J. Ford, is one of Longmans' *Class Books of English Literature*, and is an abridgment of Mrs. Creighton's *Tales of Old France*. Mrs. Creighton, the author of many popular histories and biographies, has produced a series of generally accurate biographical sketches simply and charmingly written. The list includes Vercingetorix, Charlemagne, Etienne Marcel, Jeanne d'Arc, Jacques Cœur, Cartier, Margaret of Angoulême, Ambroise Paré, Coligny, Henry of Navarre and Champlain. Unfortunately, little attempt has

been made to adapt the volume for American readers, and the editing in general leaves much to be desired, for the explanatory notes are not only frequently beside the point and often incorrectly arranged, but at times display a pro-English prejudice which is not in keeping with good taste.—J. G. G.

Modern History, by Charles Ham (Globe Book Co., New York, 1920), belongs to the Globe Outline Series on the social sciences. The author, who is an instructor in history at the Stuyvesant High School, aims in his brochure of about one hundred pages "to meet the demands of both teachers and students in secondary schools for a compact summary" of European history from 1700 to the present. There are twenty-five chapters, each of which has appended to it several sample Regents' or College Entrance examination questions; at the back of the work seventeen pages of miscellaneous questions have been added. Both in its grammatical and logical structure the outline leaves much to be desired, and it also, unfortunately, contains too many errors in fact.—C. L. L.

The Cambridge University Press has published in *English History Notes* (by W. J. R. Gibbs, 1925, viii, 235 pp.) a very compact and complete summary of English history to the outbreak of the World War. It does not profess to be more than a labor-saving device, supplanting the dictation and making of notes and an expensive textbook. It is meant to serve pupils of about fourteen years of age and provides a skeleton which an able teacher might quite adequately clothe.—J. B. B.

Teachers of geography in the higher grades of our elementary schools ought to welcome *The Branom Practice Tests in Geography*, by M. E. Branom (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1925). These tests, arranged in lesson form, consist of a series of exercises covering all phases of geography. Definite instructions for scoring each exercise and for tabulating each pupil's work are given. These tests should serve as a stimulus to the pupil and, at the same time, enable the teacher to gauge the pupil's progress.

Those who desire a summary statement of how one of our far western commonwealths is governed should consult the little volume entitled *Government in California*, by David P. and Thomas N. Barrows (The World Book Company, Yonkers, 1925, 61 pp.). Within brief compass the authors discuss the mechanism of state and local government as it affects and is affected by the body politic. While designed for the enlightenment of the younger generation, its pages might be profitably read by grown-ups as well.

Notes on Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, Ph.D.

In the December number of *The Dublin Review*, Charles Petrie explains the recent phases of the constitutional movement in Spain. In pointing out the connection between the situation in Spain and that in Italy, he says: "Both Professor Perez-Bueno and Senor Golcoechean realize that Signor Mussolini and the movement which is associated with him have given definite expression to that feeling of reaction against the old forms of government which precipitated the war and then proved unable to control the monster which they had created. This disillusionment with the virtues of democracy did not escape neutral Spain, for the increasing disorders seemed to herald a return to the anarchy of the Republic. The expression of this feeling naturally took a different form in the two countries. In Italy, so recently unified, a new national force had to be created, while in Spain it was ready to hand in the army. In both countries the present state of affairs is admittedly only temporary, but in both it is essential that there should be a new generation ready to handle the reins of office before the present rulers can relinquish their present task. The Italian army could never have voiced the feeling of the people as the Spanish

has done, for it has no national tradition behind it, while Fascismo would never have taken root in the rather skeptical political soil of Spain."

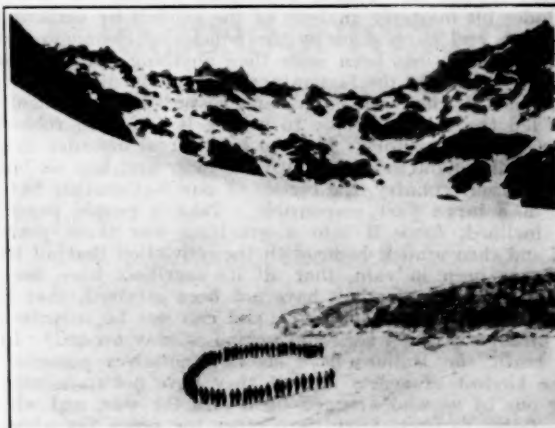
"You have the safeguards against revolutionary legislation in your written Constitution. If you have ever carefully looked into, or read a history of, the way in which the American Constitution was drawn up, you will be surprised at the care which the legislators took to erect safeguards, checks, and balances against pure democracy. We at home have none of these safeguards, we have no written constitution, and the House of Commons can do what it pleases. We are much less well protected against the excesses of democracy than you are. We have no safeguard except the traditional moderation and good sense of the English people. Nevertheless, our jaws still ache with our efforts to talk American during the early part of the war when we were plying the American eagle with lumps of sugar in order to induce him to fly across the Atlantic. I cannot too much admire the efforts of Arthur Balfour (who, of course, is a Tory) and others to represent that the one aim of the allies (including, of course, poor Nicholas II) was to make the world safe for democracy," says Dean Inge in an article on American Democracy, published in the *Johns Hopkins Alumni Magazine* for December.

Frank H. Simonds feels that "while historians will write later the World War began in 1914 at Liège and ended in 1925 at London, the surprising fact of 1925 is that while everything has changed, there has been little or no material change. Despite the pacts recently signed, no nation, no people has renounced its views of the war, its conceptions of its own rights. There are at least a score of unsettled issues in Europe at the moment quite as capable of producing war as any which have existed for a full generation."—(*January Review of Reviews*.)

In discussing "The Anti-Foreign Movement in China" (*The English Review* for December), Prof. Ivan Ross, of the Central China University, says: "All that the students desire is to see their country placed on an equal footing with other nations. They want to have her internal sovereignty respected and her territorial integrity restored. They demand the return to Chinese jurisdiction of all districts at present held by foreigners as concessions, the abandonment on the part of foreigners of extra-territorial rights, and that power should be granted China to control her own customs....The mistake which the students make is in supposing that there is any power which wishes to deprive her of these privileges. The fact is it is entirely China's own fault that she does not possess them already."

In explaining "What Liberalism Stands For" (*The Contemporary Review* for December), Prof. Gilbert Murray says: "Liberalism is a temper, a spirit, a method of approach, and Conservatism is, on the whole, the opposite spirit. Both parties believe in civilization and accept the present order as the result of so many centuries of human progress. Both admit the need of maintaining the civilization we have attained: both admit that it cannot stand absolutely still where it is....The Conservative...feels generally that a great and beneficent social whole, all parts of which are interdependent, is being threatened by foolish discontent, by faction, by malice, by idle theories and day dreams. Those are the pressing dangers against which he stands to defend society. A Liberal, valuing the social order just as much, approaches the problem from the other end. The great danger to him is the danger of refusing to see light or listen to reason, of being blinded by prejudice, by self-interest, by class passion or national passion, of contentedly doing injustice to the weak just because they are weak."

"Lafayette and the Dragon" is the title of a most interesting sketch by Philip Guedella in the January *Harper's*. "The motives," he says, "which urged him westwards in the American service were inalienably French....Then winning places were held by French patriotism and the defeat of England, and America ran last."



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Professor Gaetano Salvemini, of Florence, in writing for *Foreign Affairs* on "Italian Diplomacy During the War," concludes his masterly analysis of the subject by declaring that "The real harm done by the policies of Sonnino and our Nationalists has been more than anything else a mortal one. They brought the Italian people away from the Peace Conference despised by others and dissatisfied with itself. They led the Italian people to believe it had been robbed of the fruits of victory. For the intellectual disorder that has been rampant in Italy since the War and has all but destroyed our country, the tactics of our Nationalists have been in a large part responsible. Take a people peaceably inclined, force it into a gruelling war three years long, and then send it home with the conviction that all its effort has been in vain, that all its sacrifices have been wasted, that its objectives have not been attained, that it has been cheated by everybody, and can one be surprised if it kicks over the traces and begins to rear around? In very truth, the Italians have shown themselves possessed of the kindest of hearts in that they have not massacred every one of us who dragged them into the war, and who then failed to press from the victory the peace for which they had fought."

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from December 26, 1925, to January 30, 1926

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

AMERICAN HISTORY

- Barton, George. Little journeys around old Philadelphia. Phila.: Peter Reilly. 339 pp. \$1.75.
 Brininstool, E. A. A trooper with Custer [etc.]. Columbus, O.: The Hunter-Trader-Trapper Co. 214 pp. \$1.00.
 Fairchild, Henry P. The melting-pot mistake. Boston: Little, Brown. 272 pp. \$2.50.
 Farington, Joseph. The Farington diary, vol. 5, January 9, 1808, to December 21, 1809. N. Y.: Doran. 357 pp. \$7.50.
 Jennings, Walter W. A history of economic progress in the United States. N. Y.: Crowell. 835 pp. (9 pp. bibl.). \$4.50.
 Osborn, Norris G. History of Connecticut in monograph form; 5 vols. N. Y.: States Hist. Co., 156 Fifth Ave. \$37.50.
 Paxson, Frederic L. History of the American frontier. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 608 pp. \$3.75.
 Stephenson, George M. A history of American immigration. Boston: Ginn & Co. 322 pp. (20 pp. bibl.). \$2.40.

ANCIENT HISTORY

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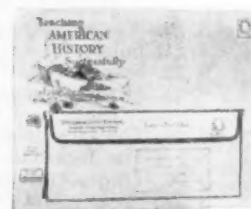
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